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ABSTRACT

The textbook is addressed to seniors in high school Marine Corps Junior Reserve Officer Training Corps (JROTC) programs and deals with leaders and the various situations in which they may function. The first part explains the history of military drill and aspects of modern drill as practiced by military units today. The section on leadership discusses the functions and responsibilities of the leader in several different areas and includes biographical sketches of some persons who have proven themselves as leaders. Also didsussed are: self-improvement (study habits and reading skill improvement), small group leadership, leadership of women, world leadership ideologies, and the responsibilities of citizens and self-government. A section on Military Orientation and Organization presents: an overview of the United States Armed Forces (Army, Air Force, Navy, Coast Guard, and the role of women), The Code of Conduct for members of the Armed Forces, general information on Civil Defense, and basic survival tactics. The final section describes the operation of the M-16 rifle and rifle coaching. A 44-item bibliography of suggested readings concludes the text. (Author/MS)

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# CHALLENGES IN LEADERSHIP

## A TEXT FOR U.S. MARINE CORPS JUNIOR ROTC

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# PREFACE

Man's most important study is of himself and his fellow man. Without a knowledge of himself, his fellow men, and the interpersonal relations among men, he cannot hope to fulfill the leadership potential he possesses. You as a high school senior have gained a considerable amount of experience in dealing with others. You have seen the effects of applying leadership principles, and you know that success or failure in a leadership position depends largely on the effort that you are willing to expend. The value of this text depends to a great degree on what you do with it. If you study with the idea that there is something you can learn about human attitudes, motivations, and behavior, then your study will be a profitable one.

A vital concern today is the structure of the various armed forces of the nation—their missions, functions, and personnel. While the Marine Corps is certainly of primary interest to us in the Marine Corps Junior ROTC program, still it is only one member of a team responsible for our national defense. Readiness is the key to Marine Corps training, and that same attitude of preparedness can be applied to the student becoming involved in his community and in his country's affairs.

This textbook deals with the leader and the various situations in which he may function. The first part is devoted to drill, the history of military drill as we know it and aspects of modern drill as practiced by military units today. The pictures in the drill section vividly demonstrate that military drill and ceremonies have many uses, and are practiced by all the armed services.

Our most important theme in Marine Corps Junior ROTC is leadership training. The functions and responsibilities of the leader are discussed in several different areas, and included are biographical sketches of some persons who have proven themselves as leaders. Every leader teaches by example, and from the example of the many leaders mentioned in this book there is much for us to learn.

The next step in your life can be the biggest decision you will make—out of high school, and on to continue your education, to travel, or to a job. This year may be the last opportunity you will have to study and practice leadership in an academic setting; it could well be that in your next assignment, either as a student or on the job, you will be required to demonstrate those leadership characteristics we'll be discussing in the chapters which follow. So make the most of the coming year. Welcome the challenges of leadership, and success can be within your grasp.

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# CHALLENGES IN LEADERSHIP

PART ONE

## MILITARY CEREMONIES

*The Marine Corps Band, "The President's Own," plays on the march on the parade deck at Marine Barracks, Washington, with the Commandant's home behind them. Honor ceremonies such as this one are common in all the armed services.*

CHAPTER 1

# ORIGINS AND HISTORY OF CEREMONIES

During the middle ages there developed the habit of mind which saw symbols and sacraments everywhere. The people were also accustomed to authority and regulation in almost every area of their daily lives. These factors provide a reason for the importance assigned to ceremony in the middle ages.

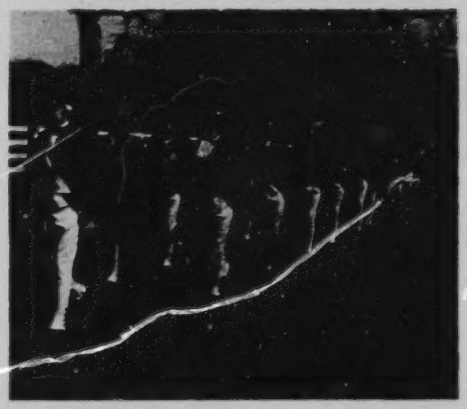
Many of the customs observed in the military services today have their origins in antiquity. They are forms of military pageantry, most of which are followed in one way or another in many armies of the world. These old customs add color, pageantry, and ceremony to military life and deserve careful perpetuation. For the most part they consist of acts honoring the nation's flag, the military dead, or comrades-in-arms.

The practice of military parading can be traced as far back as the earliest days of the Roman Empire. History reveals that detailed instructions prescribed the order of march to such an extent that even the place of prisoners in the line of march is mentioned. All armies were known to parade (hold reviews) in methods ranging from the extremely formal to the near primitive.

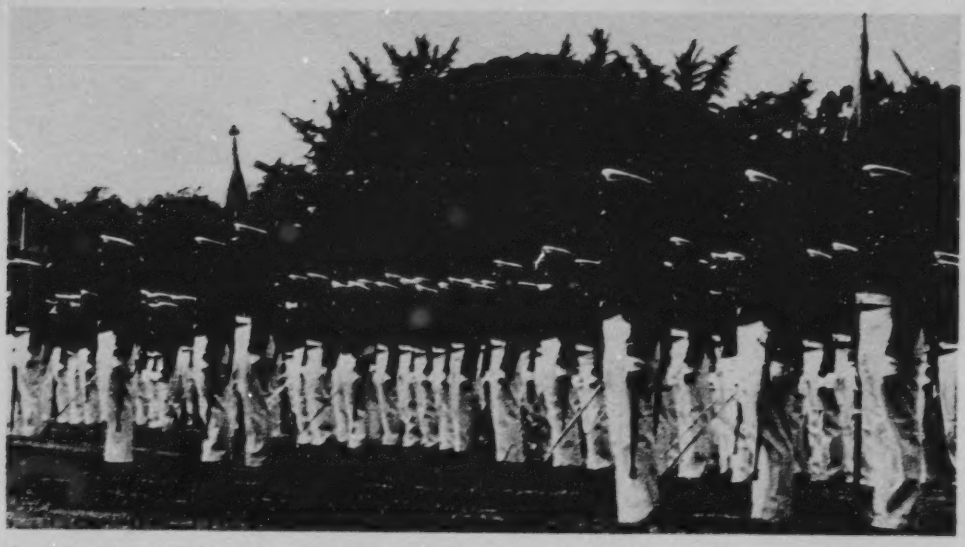
## *ORIGIN OF U.S. CEREMONIES*

Baron Von Steuben, the Continental Army's Inspector General, wrote the first manual by which ceremonies were conducted in America. This document, *Regulations for the Order and Discipline of the Troops of the United States*, is the basis from which present ceremonies were derived.

The Continental Army conducted its first review 6 May 1778 at Valley Forge. The ceremony was referred to as the Grand Review and was conducted to celebrate the treaty of alliance with France. Divine services preceded the actual review. "After a short pause, the brigades marched by their right to their post in order of battle and the line was formed with admirable rapidity and precision. Three salutes of artillery, thirteen guns each and three general discharges of running fire by the Musquetry were given in honour of the King of France." General Washington's satisfaction with the review is expressed formally in the following extract from the general order of May 7, 1778:



*The Fife and Drum Corps of the Army's Third Infantry (The Old Guard) performs on the grounds of Mount Vernon, Virginia. The music, instruments, and uniforms are authentic, exact replicas of those used by the Continental Army in colonial times. The drill used by the Corps was formulated by Baron von Steuben, who trained General Washington's soldiers. (Photo credit Daniel Donohue)*



*Naval Academy Midshipmen stand at attention on the parade ground during the Faculty Dedication Parade at the beginning of June Week. The officers are at "Order Sword," and all personnel are in the summer dress uniform.*

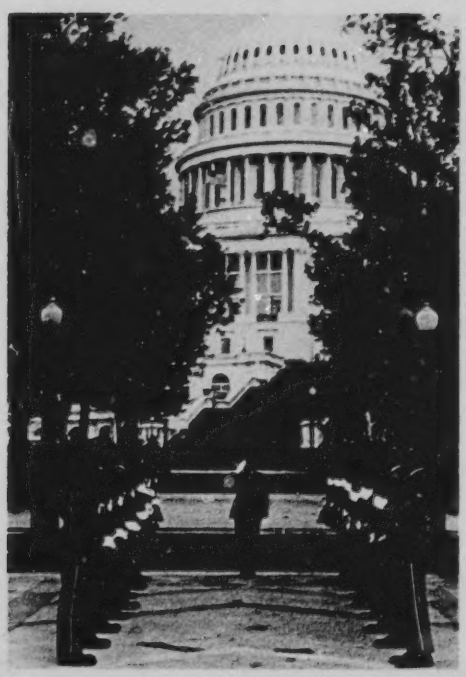
*Seen on parade at Ft. Myer, Virginia is the Army's official ceremonial unit, the 3d Infantry, known as the Old Guard. From the Salute Gun Platoon in the foreground to the Continental Color Guard in the center of the formation, some of the Army's best men have turned out to honor a retiring Secretary of the Army. (Photo credit Daniel Donohue)*

The Commander in Chief takes particular pleasure in acquainting the army that their conduct yesterday afforded him the highest satisfaction. The exactness & order with which their movements were performed is a pleasing evidence of the progress they are making in military improvement and an earnest of the pleasing perfection to which they will shortly arrive with a continuation of the laudable zeal & emulation which so happily prevails. The General at the same time presents his thanks to Baron Steuben & the gentlemen under him for their indefatigable exertions in the duties of their office, the good effects of which are already so apparent, and for the care, activity and propriety manifested in conducting the business of yesterday.

Following the "Grande Review," the steps of a review were established as: Formation of Troops, Presentation and Honors, Inspection, and March in Review. Today, reviews are conducted basically the same except: Honors to the Nation, Remarks and a Conclusion have been added.

To the Continental soldier, the term "parade" had many meanings. As expressed, it could mean to form the unit, to march or drill the unit. The term "grand parade" referred to the drill field. Units in camp were paraded daily for the purpopse of assembling, organizing and posting the various guards. After the guards were organized, the major (adjutant) rendered the report. As directed by the general, he caused the troops to exercise the manual of arms. The drummers then marched from right to left in front of the formation. The officers and noncommissioned officer were marched to the center and given the parole word and countersign. When the officers and noncommissioned officers had returned to their posts, the major again reported to the general. The major having received orders to march the troops off, caused them to pass in review. Today, military parades are conducted basically the same as

*The WW I Drill Team of the U.S. Army's 1st Battalion, 3d Infantry (The Old Guard) is depicted here executing the Queen Anne Salute, at Ft. Myer, Virginia, in honor to a visiting official. (Photo credit Daniel Donohue)*



*This Air Force Honor Guard pictured in front of the steps of the nation's capital demonstrates one of the many ceremonial uses for honor guards.*

*Shown marching at "Tomorrowland," Disneyland, California, is a drill team from the 1st Battalion 3d Infantry, the Army's Old Guard. One of the medals worn by the officer-in-charge in this picture is the Purple Heart, bearing the image of General George Washington. (Photo credit Mike Brickman)*

those at Valley Forge and have the same symbolic meaning.

Honor guard ceremonies originated during the Revolutionary era. The formation was composed of the individual guards assigned the duty of protecting their commander. Von Steuben's regulations (1779) specified that the guards would turn out (form) and render the appropriate honor and courtesy to their commander or visiting dignitaries. Examples of these honors and courtesies are as follows:

To the Commander in Chief: All guards turn out with presented arms; the drums presented arms and beat two ruffles.

To Major Generals: They turn out with presented arms and beat two ruffles.

To the President of Congress, All Governors in their own states, and Committees of Congress at the Army, shall have the same honours paid them as the Commader in Chief.

Today honor guards continue the practice of honoring visiting dignitaries.

## *DECORATIONS AND AWARDS*

There has always been a universal desire to recognize acts of bravery, fidelity, and loyalty. The Congress during the latter part of the Revolution presented awards to several officers. Various states frequently authorized medals to honored sons. As early as 1782 General George Washington ordered "Honorary Badges of Distinction" for enlisted men "who have served more than three years with Bravery, Fidelity, and Good Conduct." He also instituted a Badge of Merit in the form of a heart in purple cloth on silk. General Washington personally decorated the only three soldiers to receive the Badge of Military Merit. Sergeant Elizah Churchill, 2d Regt, Light Dragoons; Sergeant Wil-

liam Brown, 5th Connecticut Regiment; and Sergeant Daniel Bissell, 2d Connecticut Regiment. After the Revolutionary War it fell into disuse, to be revived as the Purple Heart in 1932, the 200th anniversary of Washington's birthday.

*RETREAT AND REVEILLE*

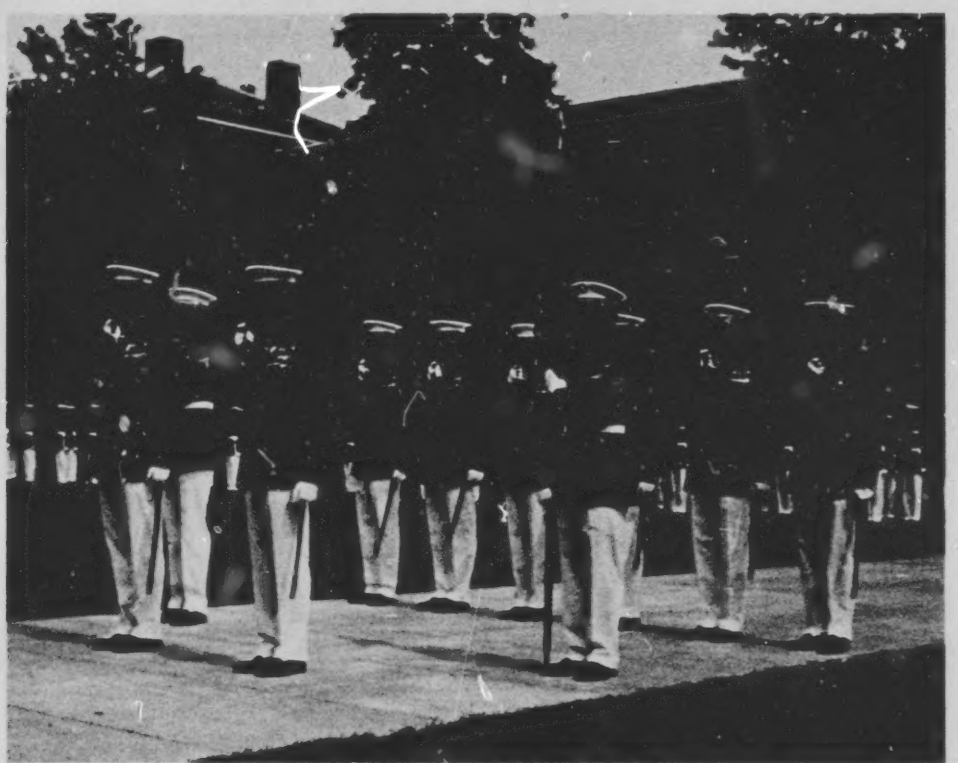
The word retreat may surprise the reader as it seems to refer to a defeat; however, the word is taken from the French word *retraite,* referring to an evening ceremony. Retreat has always been at sunset. Its original purpose was to notify sentries to start challenging until sunrise; further it told the rank and file to return to their quarters and stay there.

Reveille follows retreat and is the signal for the soldiers to rise, and the sentries to leave off challenging. The word reveille comes from the French word *reveiller* which means to wake up.

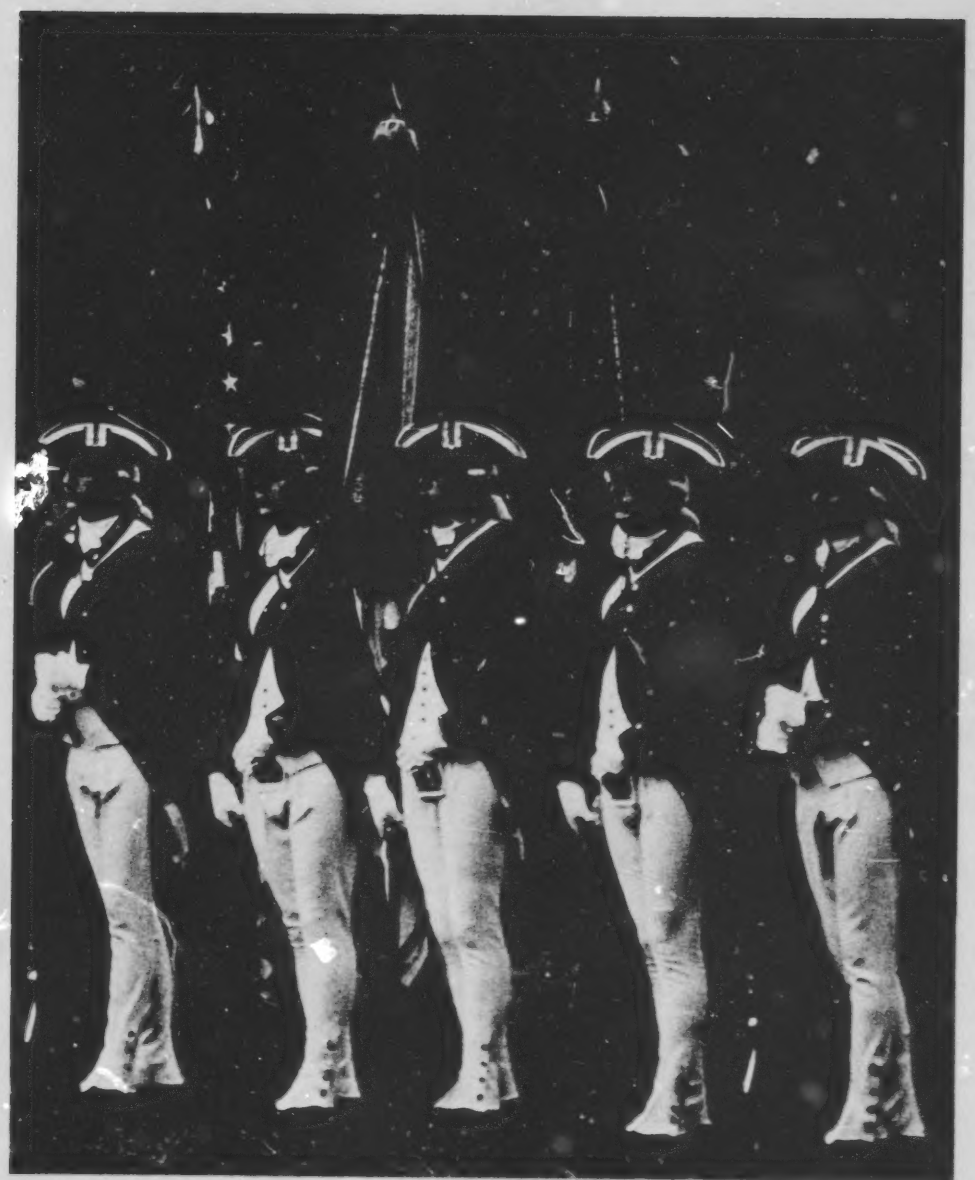
*FLAGS*

Flags are almost as old as civilization itself. Imperial Egypt, as well as the armies of Babylon, Chaldea, and Assyria, followed the colors of their kings. The Old Testament frequently mentions banners and standards.

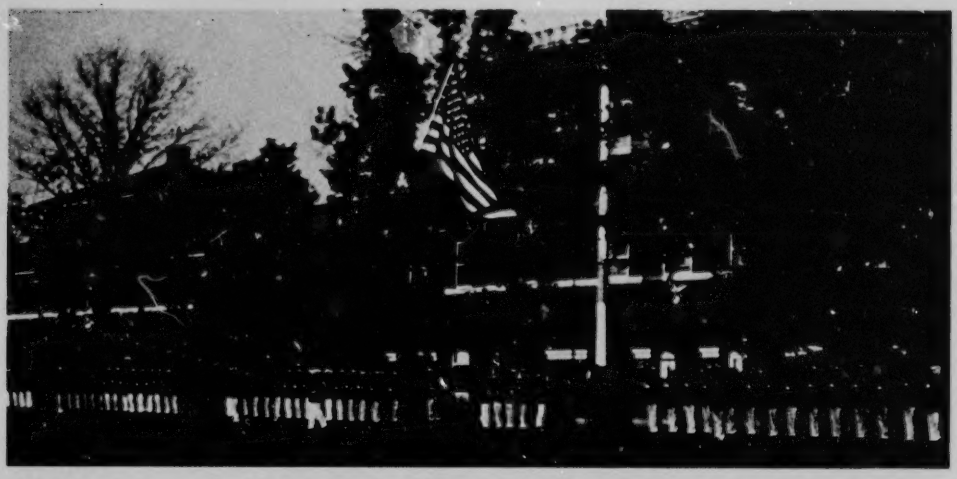
Until comparatively recent years, the flags which identified nations usually were based upon the personal or family heraldry of the reigning monarch or ruling nobleman. As autocracies faded or disappeared, dynastic colors were no



*Parade officers at "Officers Center" present arms during one of the famous Friday Evening Parades at historic Marine Barracks, Washington, D.C.*



*Seen participating in a retirement ceremony at Ft. Myer, Virginia is the Third United States Infantry Continental Color Guard, in the authentic 1784 uniforms. To the left of the National Color is the U.S. Army flag, with 159 battle streamers. On the far left is the flag of the 3d Infantry (The Old Guard). (Photo credit Mike Brickman)*



*Members of Marine Barracks, Washington, D.C., stand at present arms and render honors to the nation's flag during the lowering of colors at a Sunset Parade.*

longer popular and national flags, as we think of them today, came into being. These national flags, such as the Union Jack of Great Britain, the Tricolor of France, and our own Stars and Stripes, are relatively new in the course of history.

The national flag serves its country in many ways. Frequently it is the mark of jurisdiction or ownership. History is filled with heroic acts of devotion to the flag. The Persian royal banner always was entrusted to the most fearsome fighter of the army. During the American Civil War the color bearer was an honored role; it symbolized the spirit of the regiment in the forefront of the fight. When the bearer fell, eager hands seized the colors to continue the advance.

No man on foreign soil can view his flag without emotion. The real beauty of the flag is the spirit of the values it represents, and in such is the patriot's love.

*The color guard of the U.S. Naval Academy, at Annapolis, Maryland, marches on the parade ground during the Faculty Dedication Parade at the beginning of June Week. This color guard is traditionally composed of senior Midshipmen, and carries national, U.S. Navy, and Naval Academy colors.*

*COLORS*

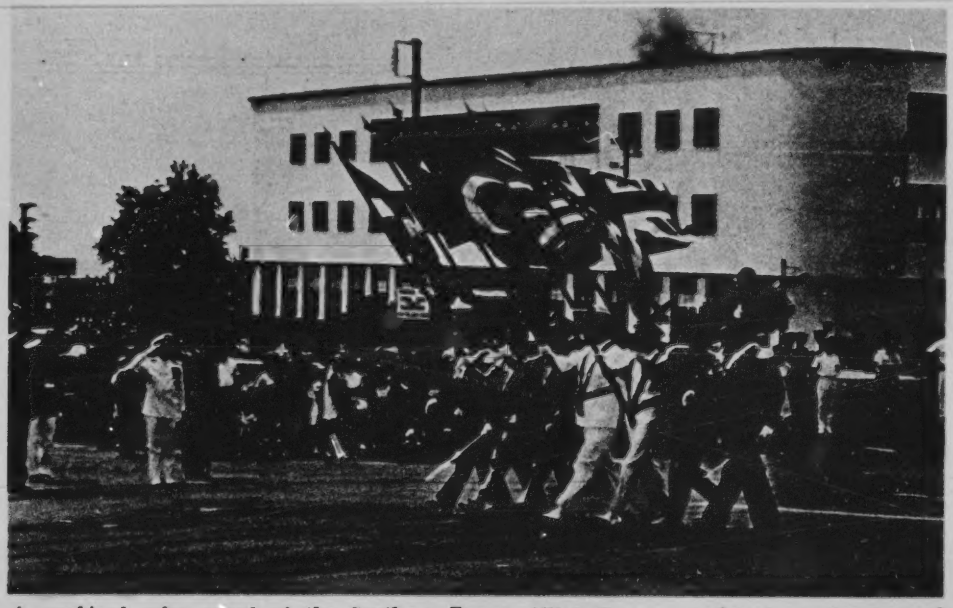
The terms "Color" and "Standard" are interchangeable, except that infantry organizations traditionally use

the term color; and mounted, mechanized, or motorized organizations traditionally use the term standard.

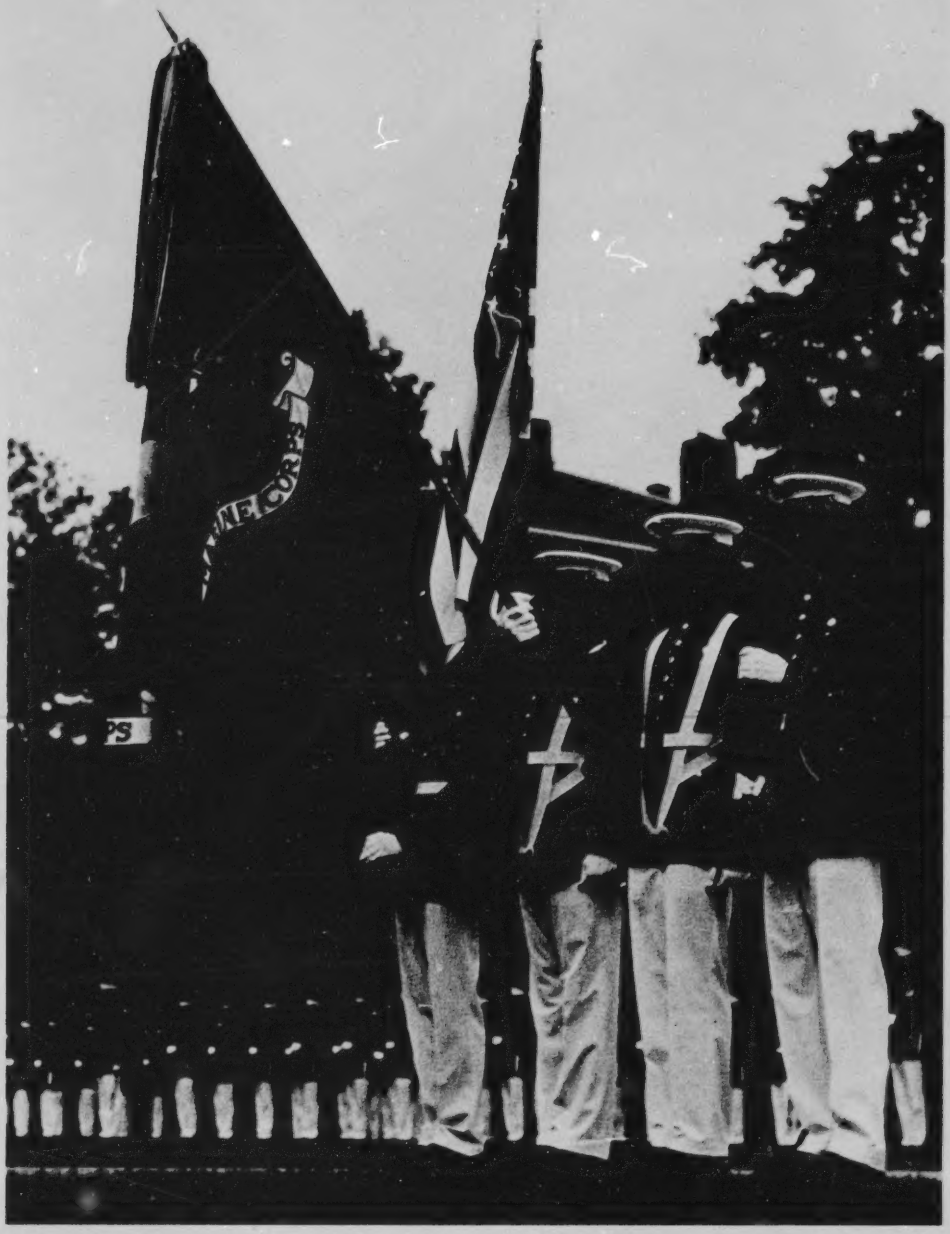
The very soul of a military unit is symbolized in the color under which it fights, for it records the glories of the past, stands guardian over its present destiny, and insures inspiration for its future. From the earliest times both savage and civilized people have used a banner or other symbol to identify their specific unit and to serve as a rallying point for their troops. In medieval days the standard or banner was used to signal a general assault which was generated by a cry of "Advance Your Banners."

At the beginning of the 17th century, armies throughout the world were adopting the regimental system. Regiments were assigned a specific color or number for ease of identification. A regiment maintained position on the battlefield by observing the location of its banner. In battle the color party marched at the front and center of the regiment. By leading the regiment in battle the colors became prime targets, as victories in those days were expressed in terms of the number of enemy colors captured; consequently, the color party bore the brunt of the battle and suffered heavy casualties. Writing of the Battle of Waterloo, a British sergeant said, "About 4 o'clock I was ordered to the colors; this, although I was used to warfare as much as anyone, was a job I did not at all like. But still I went as boldly to work as I could. There had been before me that day 14 sergeants already killed and wounded and the staff and the colors almost cut to pieces."

It is believed that our past and present day customs in the manner of the colors come from the customs of the British Army. In 1751 a British regulation prescribed that there would be only two colors in each regiment, the King's flag and the regimental flag, and that the regimental flag be of the same color



*A combined color guard of the Southern Europe Allied Forces marches in a street parade in Naples, Italy, carrying colors of the countries represented. They are passing in review before the Commander in Chief, Allied Forces, Southern Europe, and the Commanding General, Allied Land Forces, Southeastern Europe.*



*The Battle Color of the U.S. Marine Corps is dipped during an Evening Parade at Marine Barracks, Washington, D.C. The Barracks is entrusted with the custody of the Battle Color by virtue of its position as the "Oldest Post of the Corps." The Battle Color, which bears forty-six streamers representing all the honors bestowed upon Marine Corps units, as well as all the military campaigns in which Marines have participated, is carried by the Color Guard of the Marine Corps.*

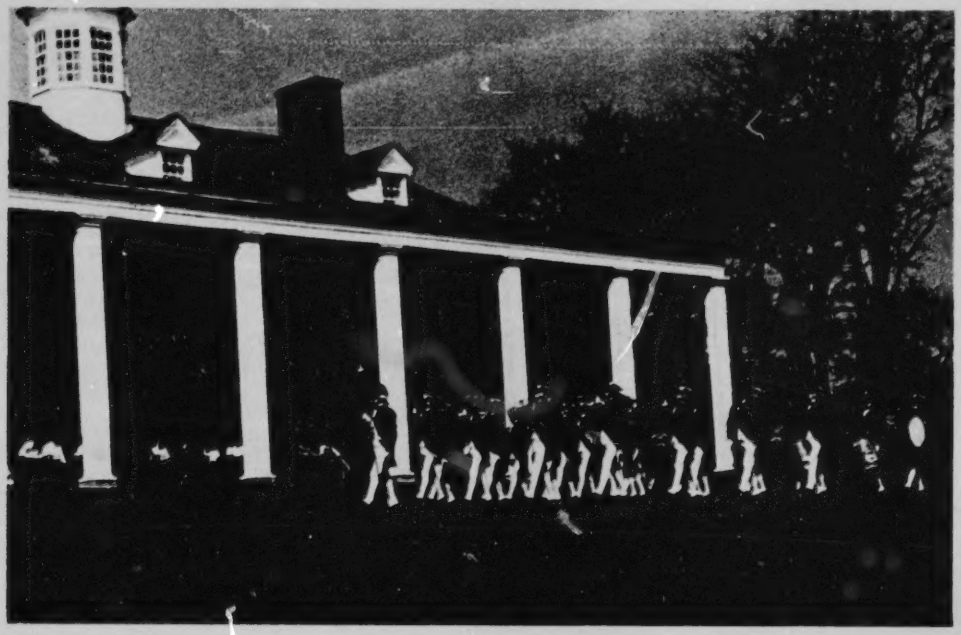
as the facings (lapels, cuffs, and turn back of the coat) and to bear the regimental number. In a general order of February 20, 1776, General Washington required that every regiment should be supplied with two flags, a regimental standard or color and a "Grand Division" color, both to be small and light and to bear if possible "some kind of similitude to the uniform of the regiment to which they belong." In 1779 the concept of two colors for a battalion or regiment was restated by Steuben's regulations and further clarified by Washington and the Board of War. The two colors were then referred to as the "Standard of the United States" and the "Regimental Colour," which was to be the same color as the facings of the regiment. Instructions for the Ensigns (color bearers) contained in the regulation state "when in action, resolve not to part with the Colours but with their lives. As it is by them the battalion dresses."

The Stars and Stripes were not carried as a National Color until shortly before the Civil War. Instead they carried a blue silk color on which was embroidered the Arms of the United States, an American eagle bearing on his breast the shield and in its talons the olive branch and the arrows which signify peace and war. After the Stars and Stripes were authorized, the color with the eagle became the regimental color. Due to the high casualty rate among the members of the color party, plus the advent of more modern weapons, the time honored practice of carrying the colors in battle was discontinued. Today the colors, with battle streamers attached, join their unit in formations during ceremonies, signifying their presence during battle in days past.

The National Color is identical in design to that of the national flag with these differences: the National Color is smaller and has two sizes—4 feet 4 inch hoist by 5 feet 6 inch fly, or 3 feet hoist by 4 feet fly; it is displayed from a flagstaff rather than a flagpole; it is trimmed on three sides with golden yellow fringe 2½ inches in width. When displayed with organizational colors or individual flags, the National Color should be of the same size.

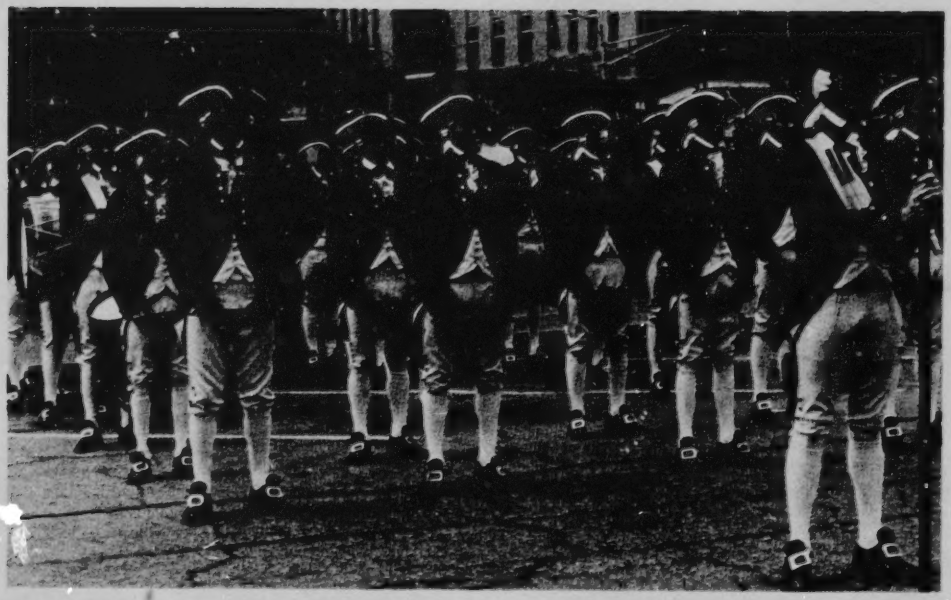
**Marine Corps Battle Color.** The Marine Corps Battle Color is the official organizational color of the U.S. Marine Corps. It displays a globe and fouled anchor centered on a scarlet background. Under the globe and anchor is a scroll with the inscription "United States Marine Corps."

*A U.S. Navy and Marine Corps color guard marches in a street parade in the city of Ciudaela, on the island of Minorca, Spain, during the Admiral Farragut Memorial dedication ceremony.*



*Marching at the stately "troop" of 45 steps per minute, dating back to the drill training of General George Washington's continental soldiers, the Fife and Drum Corps of the Army's Old Guard is pictured here in front of Washington's plantation home at Mt. Vernon, Virginia. (Photo credit Daniel Donohue)*

*Horses have played an important part in ceremonial parades in the history of military drill. This Army mounted band was stationed at Ft. Bliss, El Paso, Texas, about 1912. Even the drummer is mounted on horseback, and he and his fellow bandsmen provided music for all honor ceremonies.*



*The Fife and Drum Corps of the Army's Old Guard is seen here performing in a street parade in St. Louis, Missouri. This group is authentic in every detail to its colonial history, and in fact the members even march at the old cadence of 90 steps per minute, rather than the 120 steps per minute rate of the modern military drill. The group often plays the tune "Washington's March." (Photo credit Daniel Donohue)*

*This Marine private was a drummer in the United States Marine Bagpipe Drum and Bugle Corps at the Naval Operating Base, Londonderry, Northern Ireland, in the early 1950's.*

It has a golden yellow fringe around three sides. Attached to the peak of the staff are multicolored streamers representing all battles, campaigns, and expeditions in which Marines were engaged.

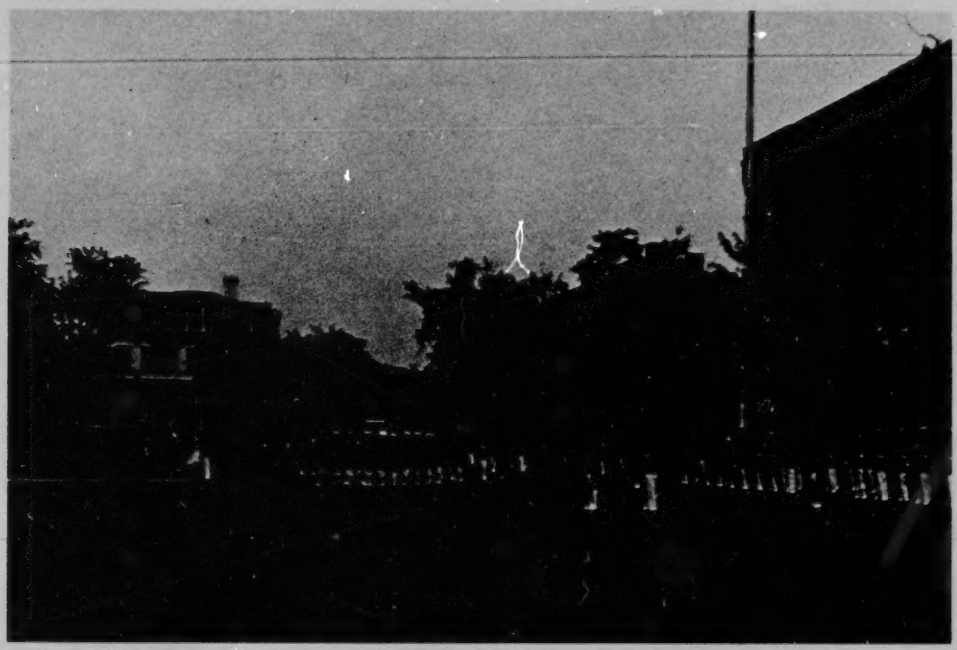
The Marine Corps Battle Color is entrusted to the Marine Barracks, Washington, D.C., in respect for the age, tradition, and heritage of the Corps' oldest post. It is carried by the Color Guard of the Marine Corps in all parades and ceremonies at the Barracks.

**Organizational Colors.** The organizational color is 3 feet hoist by 4 feet fly and is trimmed on three sides by a fringe 2½ inches in width. Each branch of service has its own background color and distinctive marking.

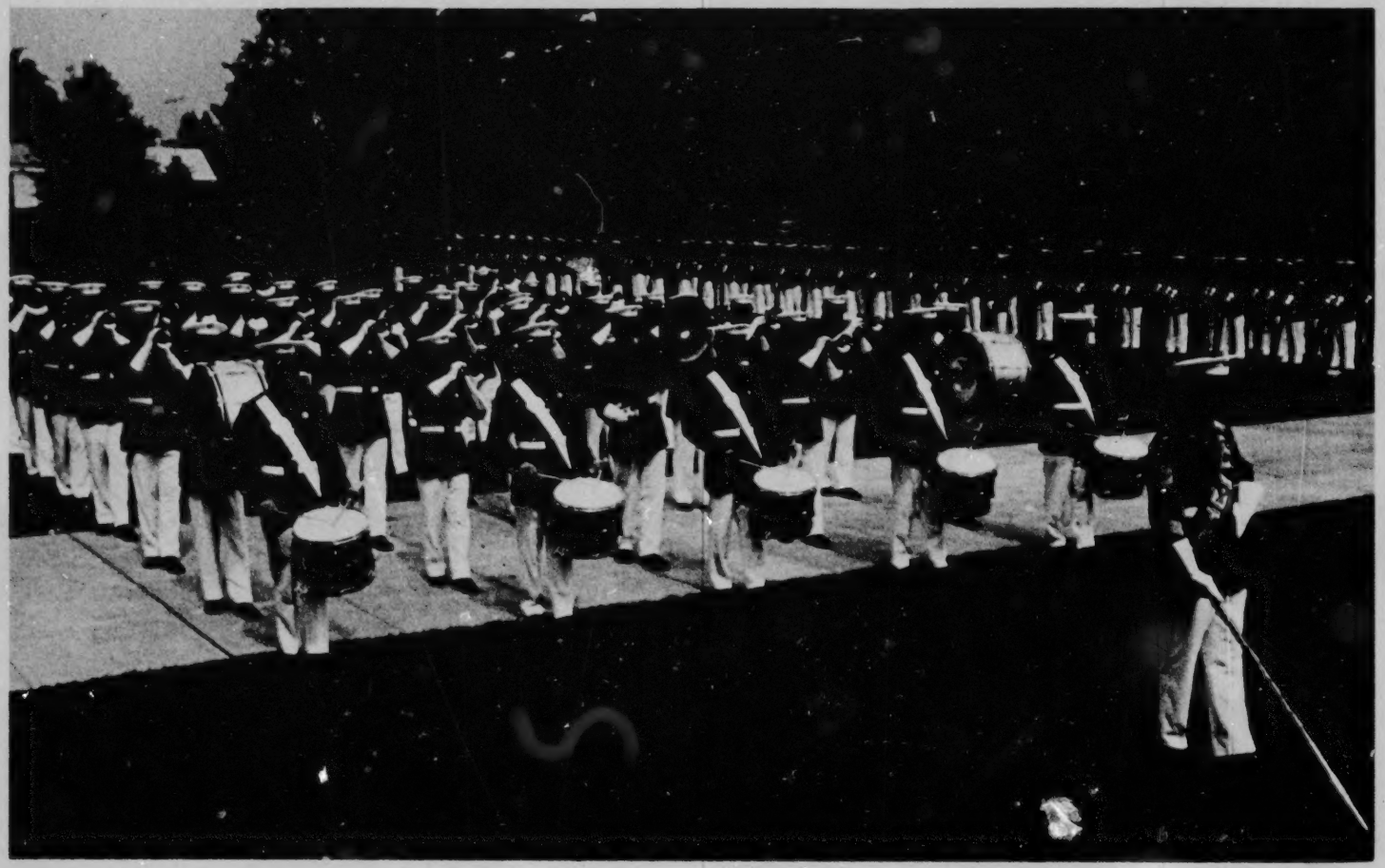
## *MILITARY MUSIC*

**Records.** The earliest surviving pictorial sculptured, and written records show musical or quasimusical instruments employed in connection with military activity—for signalling in encampments during parades, and in combat. Because the sounds were most often produced in the open air, the instruments have tended to be of the easily audible brass and percussion types. Oriental, Egyptian, Greek, Roman, American Indian and other chronicles and pictorial remains show trumpets and drums of many varieties allied to soldiers and battles.

**Bugle Calls.** These are used in the military service of the United States as the result of the contact of the Continental Army with the soldiers and armies from Europe during the Revolutionary Period. During the post-Revolutionary period many of the French (and English) calls and beats were transferred and absorbed into the United States Army.



*This is a panorama of all the units on the parade deck during the Drum and Bugle Corps concert portion of an evening parade behind the home of the Marine Corps Commandant at 8th and "I", Washington, D.C. Similar ceremonial parades have been performed for many centuries.*



*The U.S. Marine Drum and Bugle Corps performs during one of the Friday Evening Parades at Marine Barracks, 8th and "I", Washington, D.C. Its music is as traditional as the drill it practices.*

**Attention.** This is taken from the British call "alarm," at which time the troops turn out under arms.

**Adjutant's Call.** This indicates that the adjutant is about to form the guard, battalion, or regiment.

**Ruffles and Flourishes.** The customs of announcing the arrival of royalty and heads of state with a fanfare of trumpets or drums rolls had its origin in England. It is ironic that nowhere within the Commonwealth are drum ruffles and the two-note bugle call of the flourishes used in this manner today, though the tradition is still carried on in the United States.

One of history's earliest references to the use of drums is in the days of England's Lord Marlborough. He had huge kettle drums installed in carts and these would be beat as he approached a village to collect taxes.

The colonists brought many of the military customs of their mother country with them when they came to America. At the time of the French-Indian Wars soliders were instructed to "rest (Present Arms) and beat two ruffles" for the Royal Governor of Virginia. In 1776 officers of the Continental Army were advised that "the adjutant is to order a drum and fife to give two ruffles to a major general and one to a brigadier."

When Baron Von Steuben, the German General who volunteered to serve as an advisor to Washington at Valley Forge, wrote his *Manual of Discipline*, he stated that there were to be "certain ruffles" for generals. It is interesting to note that General Washington was not accorded ruffles. Instead, his arrival was announced by a march—more than likely "Washington's March" which is still played today: In time this custom was extended to include governors of sovereign states and visiting foreign dignitaries.

Ruffles were evidently considered not so elegant and were used exclusively by the military and in some cases were even accorded to the Officer of the Day.

It was some time before trumpets were added to the drum rolls; it is believed they were added during the War of 1812. Honors for dignitaries were modified to include a flourish of trumpets called the "Three Cheers." It is likely that this particular salute evolved into the Ruffles and Flourishes as they are played today.

Research into old Navy records indicates that regulations of 1876 stipulated that there would be a ruffle of drums to announce the President's arrival but made no mention of the trumpet flourishes. A later regulation of 1893 stated that the chief executive would receive four ruffles and flourishes. It appears then that this custom was established early in the 1890's. It is probable that these honors were first accorded in this manner by the Marine Band as it was assigned to perform at all official functions and was often referred to as the "National Band." The Marine Band today is often referred to as the "President's Own."

**To The Color.** The old cavalry call "To The Standard," in use from about 1835, was replaced by the present call of "To The Color."

**National Anthem.** The music for our National Anthem is an old English popular tune composed by John Stafford Smith, "To Anacreon In Heaven." The words were written by Francis Scott Key on 14 September 1814 (the War of 1812-1815) during the assault on the main defenses of Fort McHenry which guarded the entrance to Baltimore harbor. Throughout the day and a good portion of the night the British shelled, bombed, and fired rockets on the fort. As the sun came up on the morning of the 14th, Key and his friends were elated to see through the morning mist the great flag of the fort still flying. The young attorney, filled with emotion,

began to jot down lines of verse which became our present national anthem.

**Sound Off.** The band in place plays the "Sound Off" of the three chords. It then moves forward, and changing direction while playing a stirring march, troops the line and marches past the troops in formation, then returns to its post. Upon halting it again plays the three chords. This custom is believed to have originated at the time of the Crusades. At that time, when detachments were sent on far away campaigns, it was the custom to assemble the garrison in formation with the departing troops in the place of honor on the right. The band of the period marched past troops being honored much as it is now done during "Sound Off." "Three Cheers" for their departing comrades were then given by the troops remaining behind. The simple notes of the three cheers as they are used today have this symbolic meaning.

**Reveille, Retreat.** The music for these ceremonies can be traced to a French cavalry call which can be further dated to calls used in the Crusades.

**Hail to the Chief.** "Hail to the Chief" was composed by James Sanderson, an Englishman. The Marine Band's earliest records show that the music was performed on July 4, 1828, and numerous political and patriotic parodies were set to its tune. Some authorities feel that Sanderson "lifted" the melody from a Scottish folk song.

**Taps.** The original version of "Taps" (the last call of the day) was borrowed from the French call "Extinction des Feux," meaning "fires out." The French version was changed to our present day version by General Daniel Butterfield (Third Brigades, First Division, Fifth Army Corps, Army of the Potomac) in July, 1862. In answer to an inquiry from the editor of Century Magazine (August 1898) pertaining to an article written by Mr. Gustav Kobbe, "The Trumpet in Camp & Battle", General Butterfield replied, "The call of Taps did not seem to be as smooth, melodious and musical as it should be, and I called in someone (name unknown) who could write music, and practiced a change in the call of Taps until I had it to suit my ear and got it to my taste without being able to write music or knowing the technical name of any notes." O. W. Norton, brigade bugler, was the first to play the new version. Although written in 1862, it was not until 1874 that General Butterfield's version appeared in the Infantry Drill Regulation. The earliest official reference to the mandatory use of "Taps" at military funeral ceremonies is in the U.S. Army Drill Regulations of 1891.

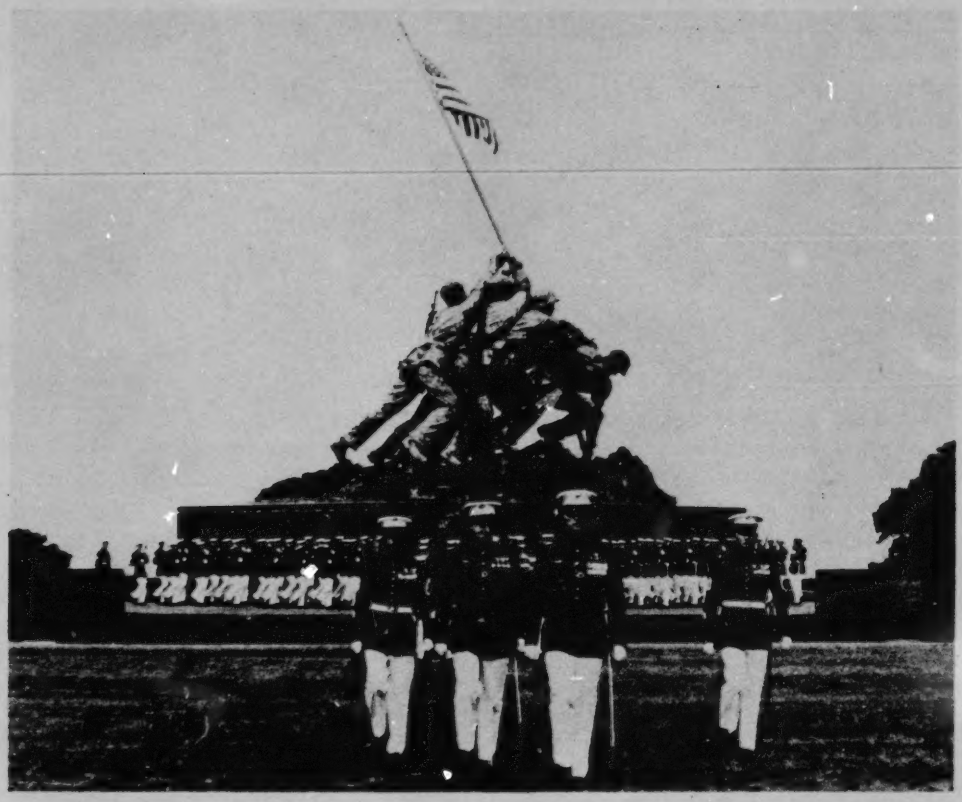
Today as yesterday the sounding of "Taps" has two meanings. As expressed by Mr. Gustav Kobbe (1898), "Taps has a tender, touching, mournful character in keeping with the fact that it is sounded not only for Lights Out, but also over the soldiers grave, be he general or private, so that as with Lights Out, night closes in upon the soldiers' day, so with the same call rolls down upon his life."

CHAPTER 2

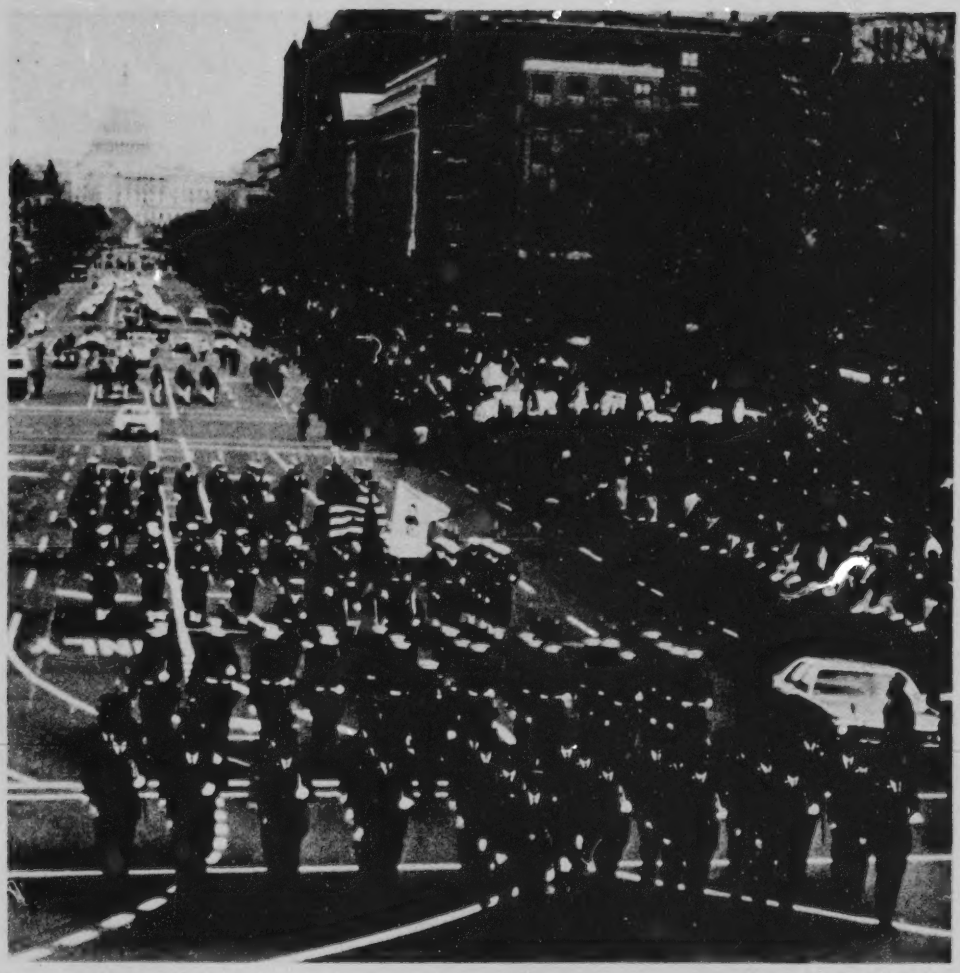
# CEREMONIES OF TODAY

The role of today's military ceremonies is to preserve the traditions and values of the ages past. Ceremonies are performed to render honor to flag, country and our fellow men who have distinguished themselves in their fields of endeavor. These military ceremonies are defined as formations and movement of a number of troops, to include a band and colors, who execute movements in unison and with precision. The colors and music add distinction and assist in the stimulation of esprit de corps among the participants as well as the observers.

In this chapter you will become acquainted with several types of ceremonies in which your unit might participate or observe. Many parades and reviews are executed in essentially the same manner, but they differ in several respects. The parades and reviews may be ceremonies within themselves, but



*Marines parade in a traditional ceremony at the Iwo Jima Monument in the Arlington National Cemetery, Washington, D.C., passing in review for the public.*



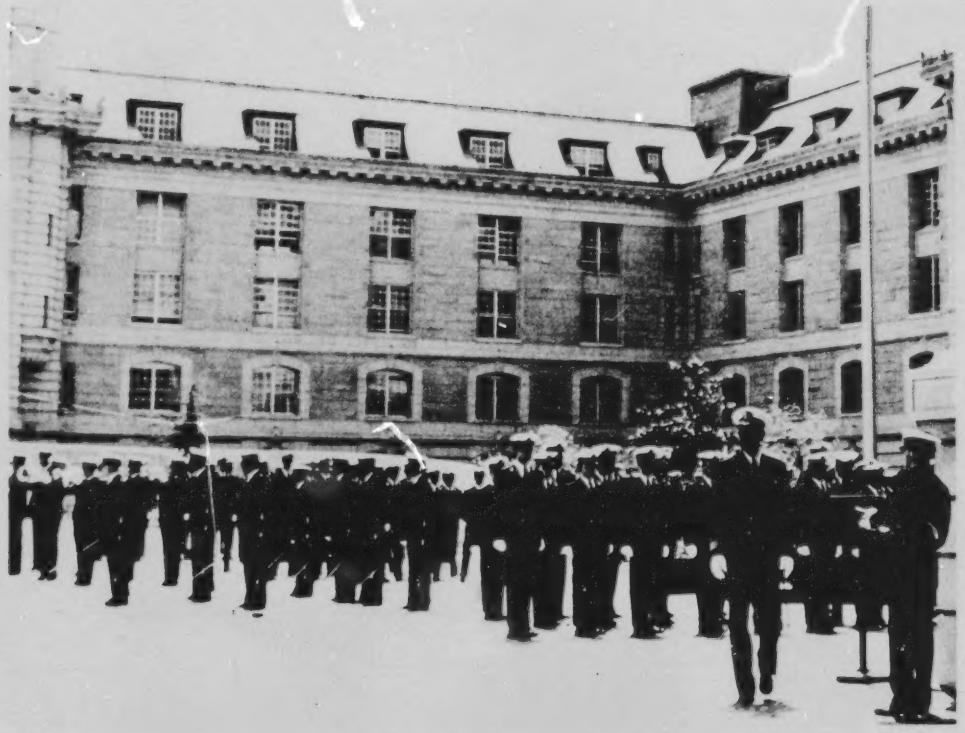
*In the 1973 Inauguration Parade for President Richard M. Nixon honor platoons of the various services marched down Pennsylvania Avenue with the National Ensign and the Presidential and Vice-Presidential Colors.*

they are usually conducted to provide a formal setting for other ceremonies.

## *PREPARATION*

Prior planning and preparation are required for an effective ceremony. This preparation is normally the responsibility of the unit adjutant. He must establish the time, date, and place; make arrangements for a band; and schedule rehearsals. He must also see that the location is marked with the proper flags and necessary markers to indicate guidance for the participants. Markers are often used to indicate the location of key individuals.

The organization, uniform, arms, and equipment of units participating in the ceremonies, along with any other necessary administrative information, is prescribed by the commander. This information may be prescribed by a unit standing operating procedure to pre-



*Midshipmen of the United States Naval Academy, Annapolis, Maryland, stand in parade formation in front of Bancroft Hall, the billeting building, in Winter Service uniform.*

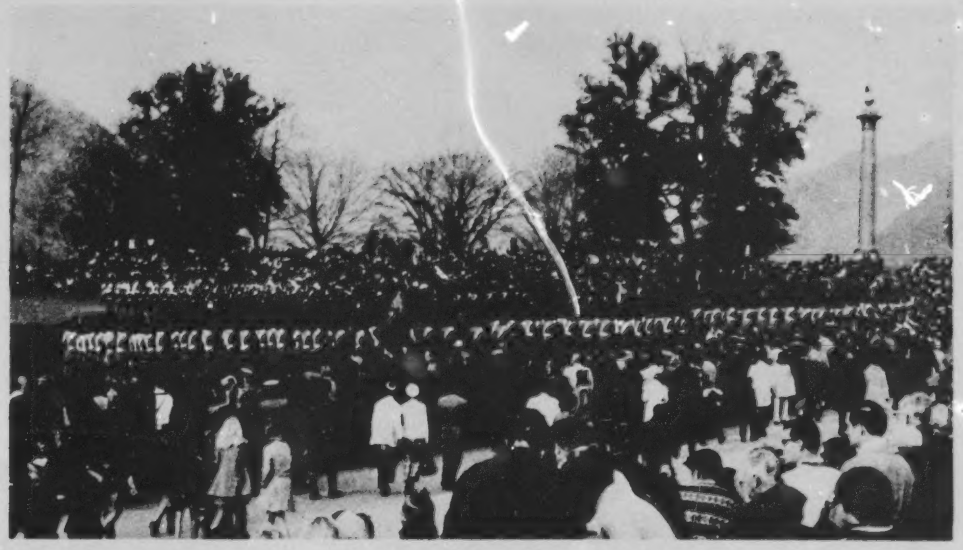
clude the necessity of frequent repetition in individual ceremony orders. The formations and general rules for ceremonies may be modified by the commanding officer when the nature of the ground or exceptional circumstances require such changes.

## BATTALION CEREMONIAL PARADE

A parade may be a ceremony, or it may be part of a larger ceremony. The purpose of a parade is to provide a formal ceremony for the bestowal of honors on the flag, an individual, or a group. It also provides an opportunity to promote teamwork and esprit de corps in an organization, and to display patriotism, loyalty, and national unity.

### *FORMING FOR THE PARADE*

At Adjutant's Call, the troops are formed in line with companies in line, or in line with companies in mass (or extended mass) formation. Companies are marched from the left flank in column or mass formation so as to arrive at positions parallel to and in rear of the line, successively, from right to left. The command of execution for their movement is so timed that they will step off at the first note of the march following adjutant's call. The line of march is sufficiently off the line on which the battalion is to form to permit the expeditious alinement of guides of the right company by the adjutant. As each company arrives in rear of its position, the company commander commands



*Cadets of the United States Military Academy, West Point, New York, are shown moving to their positions on line prior to a parade for the public. The precision exhibited on the parade deck is carried on to the performance of duty as leaders and commissioned officers of the U.S. Army after graduation.*

GUIDES ON LINE. At this command, the guide of each platoon move out at double time (at port arms) to his position on the line indicated by the flags and faces the adjutant. If the companies are massed, only the guide of the right platoon moves on line. The adjutant aligns the guides of the right company the guides of other companies cover the guides already on the line. As soon as the guides have established themselves on the line, the company is aligned as prescribed in Company Drill. The right man of the front rank places himself so the center of his chest touches the guide's arm.

Guidon bearers execute right face when the companies are being dressed. This enables each guidon bearer to position himself on his company and to cover behind other guidon bearers to the right. He faces to the front at the command Ready, FRONT.

When all units have reached their position on the line, the band stops playing, and the adjutant commands Guides, POSTS. At the command POSTS, the guides move to their normal positions in ranks.

*SOUND OFF AND RETREAT*

After the battalion has been formed on line and the guides have taken their posts, the adjutant takes position halfway between the battalion commander and the troops. He commands Parade REST. After its execution he commands SOUND OFF. The adjutant, the battalion commander, and the remainder of the staff remain at attention during the playing of SOUND OFF and while the band troops the line (and while RETREAT is played at an evening parade).

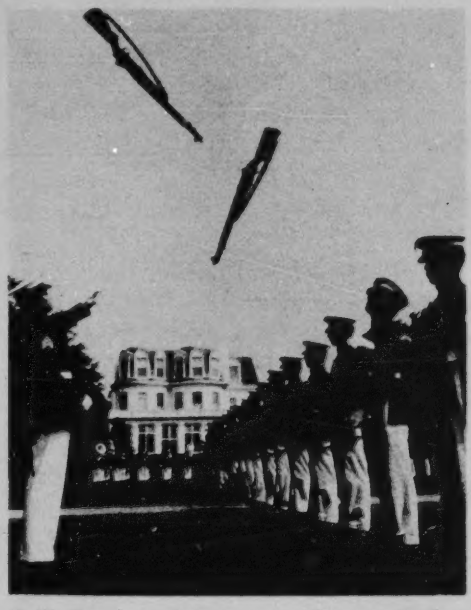
At the command SOUND OFF, the band plays the SOUND OFF in place. After the completion of SOUND OFF, the band plays and moves forward simultaneously with the first bar of the march. It executes a column left in time to pass across the front of the troop

line midway between the adjutant and the line of company commanders. When the band has passed the left of the troop line, it counter-marches and returns over the same ground to the right of the line. After it passes the right of the troops, it executes column right. When the entire band has passed beyond the front line of troops, it countermarches and halts in its original position. The band stops playing the march at the next ending, and then repeats SOUND OFF. At an evening parade, RETREAT is then sounded by the field music.

If not an evening parade, immediately after SOUND OFF, at the conclusion of the march by the band, the adjutant commands Battalion, ATTENTION, and then Present, ARMS. He faces about, salutes the battalion commander and reports, "Sir, the parade is formed." The battalion commander returns the salute, directs the adjutant, "Take Your Post, sir," and draws sword if so armed. The adjutant marches to his post, one and a half paces to the rear and one pace to the right of the battalion commander, by the most direct route which will take him around the commander's right flank.

At the evening parade, immediately after the conclusion of RETREAT, the adjutant commands Battalion, ATTENTION and then Present, ARMS. He continues facing the troops and salutes. Upon his salute, the band plays the NATIONAL ANTHEM and the flag is lowered. The ceremony, to this point, must be timed so this portion will occur at sunset. At the completion of the anthem, with the troops still at present arms, the adjutant terminates his salute, faces about and reports to the battalion commander, "Sir, the parade is formed." The battalion commander returns the adjutant's salute and directs, "Take your post, sir."

The battalion commander then draws his sword and commands Order, ARMS. Following this he orders such movements of the manual of arms as he may desire. The color guard and guidon bearers will remain at the order during the manual of arms. Sword carriers will go to the carry.



*Drill Team maneuvers are often part of a formal review ceremony. In this picture two members of the world famous United States Marine Corps Silent Drill Team perform a double behind-the-back rifle throwback, an unusual manual of arms for exhibition, at the Marine Barracks, Washington, D.C.*

## *REPORT AND PUBLISH ORDERS*

The battalion commander then directs the adjutant, "Receive the report, sir." The adjutant, passing the battalion commander's right, marches to his post, halfway between the troops and the commander from where he commands REPORT.

On REPORT, the company commanders, in succession from right to left, salute and report, "_____ company, all present or accounted for" or "_____ company, _____ men and/or

officers absent." The adjutant returns each salute after the report is completed. If armed with the sword, he returns to carry sword after each salute.

The adjutant then faces the battalion commander, salutes and reports, "Sir, all present or accounted for," or states the number of person absent.

The battalion commander salutes and directs the adjutant, "Publish the orders, sir." The adjutant faces the troops and commands ATTENTION TO ORDERS. He then reads the appropriate orders to the formation.

*OFFICERS CENTER*

When the adjutant has published the orders, he commands Officers, Center, MARCH. He then faces about and marches to his post behind the battalion commander.

On the command Officers, all company officers execute carry sword (if so armed), and all guidon bearers execute carry guidon.

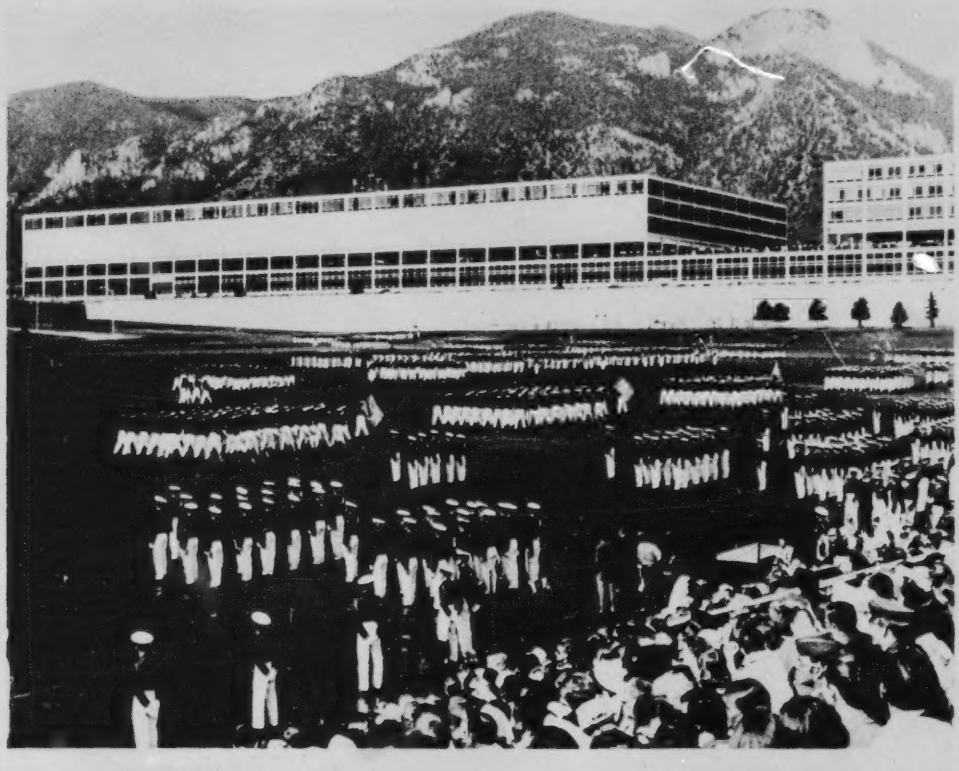
On Center, when companies are in line, all company commanders, platoon commanders, and guidon bearers face the center of the battalion formation. When companies are in mass, company commanders and guidon bearers face center; platoon commanders take on pace forward and face center. In both cases all other company officers move around the flank nearest center and take position in the file formed by the platoon commanders.

On MARCH, the band plays, and officers and guidon bearers step off on the first note of music and close to the center at close interval. Each officer halts when he is at close interval to the officer ahead of him and faces the battalion commander. Company commanders, when closing to the center, must oblique slightly forward in order to close on a line four paces in front of that formed by the guidon bearers. Guidon bearers close on their own line and take position behind their respective company. All other officers close on the line of platoon commanders.

After all officers and guidon bearers have closed and faced forward, the senior commands Forward, MARCH. As they advance, the center officer of the landing rank is the guide. He guides toward the battalion commander. The group is halted six paces from the battalion commander by the senior officer. Officers not armed with the sword hesitate for one count after the halt and execute the hand salute. If armed with the sword they execute present sword. Guidon bearers execute present guidon. All members of the party should be at salute on fourth count after the command HALT. The battalion commander returns the salute. If the officers are armed with the sword, the battalion commander then orders, Carry, SWORDS. On Carry, the guidon and the officers execute order sword. If the officers are not armed with the sword, the battlion commander orders Ready, TWO. On Ready, guidon bearers execute the first movement to carry guidon. On TWO, guidon bearers complete carry guidon and the officers terminate their hand salutes. The battalion commander terminates his salute on the same command which terminates those of the officers' party. Staff members do not salute at this time. The battalion commander then gives whatever instructions to the officers he deems necessary.

The battalion commander then commands Posts, MARCH. On Posts, all officers and guidon bearers face about. On MARCH, they step off. The center officer is the guide as before. He guides toward the center of the battalion formation.

The senior officer commands Officers, HALT in time to halt the detachment when the leading rank is six paces from the companies in line, three paces from the companies if in mass formation. He



*Parade participants pass in review during a parade at the Air Force Academy in Colorado Springs, Colorado. Behind the parade field is the cadet barracks, a single building a fourth of a mile in length. The Air Force Academy is the nation's newest and most modern service academy.*

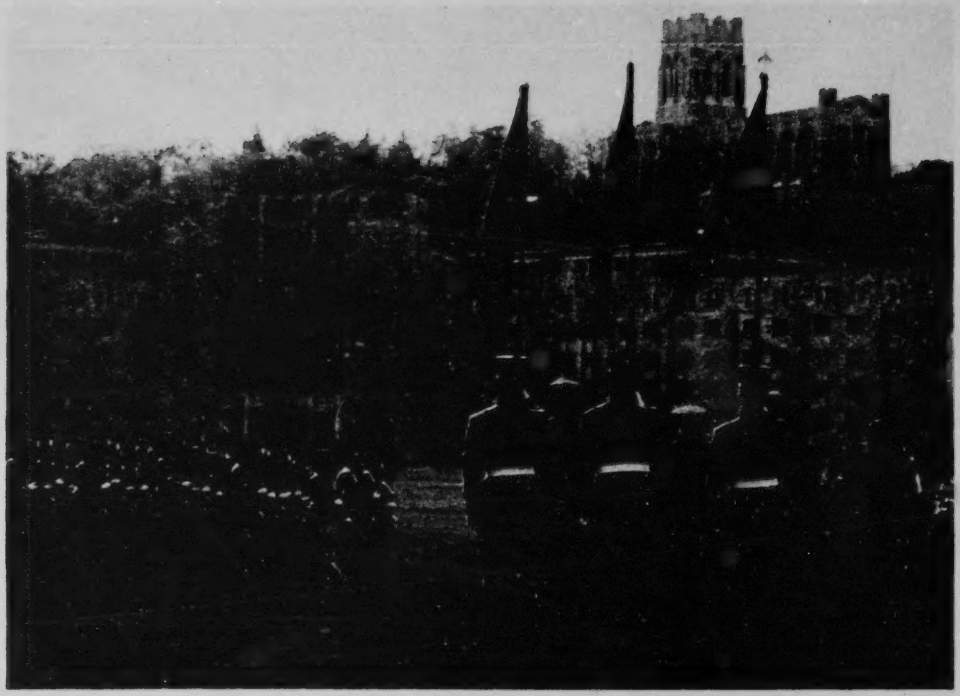
then commands Posts, MARCH. On Posts, officers and guidon bearers face in the direction of their companies. On MARCH, officers step off in succession at four pace intervals, resume their posts and execute order guidon. The band stops playing when the last officer has resumed his post. Except when saluting, the battalion commander remains at carry sword.

*PASS IN REVIEW*

When the band has stopped playing, the battalion commander orders PASS IN REVIEW and returns sword. On this command, the band changes direction to that of the line of march and halts.

When the band has halted, the commander of the next company to the left gives the command to put his troops in motion along the line of march. The band also moves out upon his command of execution. Only voice commands will be used. Other units move out in succession and follow at the prescribed distance. The band and each unit or company change direction to follow the line of march without command from the battalion commander. Each turning point should have been previously marked.

Company commanders command Eyes, RIGHT when six paces from the nearest member of the reviewing party. All officers except those armed with the sword in the interior of a formation



*The Corps of Cadets of the U.S. Military Academy is seen in this picture as it marches in review in front of the barracks at West Point, New York. The passing troops are at "Eyes Right."*

(other persons to the front and sides) salute. The salute and eyes right position is held until the unit is six paces past the reviewing party.

The band executes column left when it has passed the reviewing stand. It then executes a second and third column left so it will end up in front of and facing the reviewing officer at least twelve paces from the left flank of the marching troops. It continues to play until the last marching unit passes the reviewing stand, then follows the marching units off the parade field.

### *SEQUENCE OF COMMANDS FOR A BATTALION PARADE*

When the troops are formed and aligned for the parade, the guides are posted, and the battalion adjutant has taken his position halfway between the battalion commander and the troops, the parade is ready to begin.

*The Cadet Band of the Fork Union Military Academy, in Fork Union, Virginia, plays at the march on the Academy campus, prior to participating in a battalion parade.*

ADJUTANT:
Parade, REST
SOUND OFF (The adjutant, battalion commander and his staff all remain at attention during the playing of Sound Off and while the band troops the line, and while Retreat is played at an evening parade.)
Battalion, ATTENTION
Present, ARMS
(The adjutant then faces about, salutes the battalion commander, and reports.)
"Sir, the parade is formed."

BN CMDR:
(After returning the adjutant's salute, the commander directs the adjutant.)
"Take your post, sir."
(The commander draws sword if so armed.)
Order, ARMS
(The commander may at this time order such movements of the manual of arms as he may desire.)
(The commander then directs the adjutant)
"Receive the report, sir."

ADJUTANT
(The adjutant returns to his post halfway between the commander and the troops.)
REPORT

CO CMDRS:
(The company commanders, in succession from right to left, salute and report.)
"..... company, all present or accounted for," or,
..... company, ..... men and/or officers absent."

ADJUTANT
(The adjutant then faces the battalion commander, salutes, and reports.)
"Sir, all present or accounted for," or, "..... officers and/or men absent."

BN CMDR:
(The commander salutes and directs the adjutant.)
"Publish the orders, Sir"

ADJUTANT:
(The adjutant faces the troops to command.)
ATTENTION TO ORDERS: (The adjutant publishes the orders.)
Officers, Center, MARCH
(The adjutant faces about and returns to his post behind the battalion commander.)

SR OFFICER:
(The senior officer gives this command when all officers and guidon bearers have closed and faced forward.)
Forward, MARCH.
(The group is halted six paces from the commander, and all salute without order.)
Officers, HALT

BN CMDR:
(If the officers are armed with swords.)
Carry, SWORDS.
(If the officers are at Hand Salute.)
Ready, TWO
(The commander issues his instructions to the officers.)
Posts, MARCH
(All officers and guidon bearers face about on the preparatory command (Posts), and step off on the command of execution (MARCH). They are halted when the leading rank is six paces from the companies in line or three paces from the companies in mass formation.)

SR OFFICER:
Officers, HALT
Posts, MARCH

(BN CMDR:)
PASS IN REVIEW
(This command is issued after all officers and guidon bearers have resumed their posts and come to the order.)

## SMALL UNIT PARADE

A Marine Corps Junior ROTC unit will not normally have a sufficient number of cadets to stage a battalion parade, but certain modifications can be made to the battalion parade procedure to enable a small unit to conduct a ceremonial parade. Do not, however, feel that a large number of troops is essential to conducting a successful parade; any unit which can field two platoons can present an impressive military parade. Quality, not quantity, is the goal. Precision is more important than numbers.

The composite small unit for a parade of the type described will most often consist of a color guard, two or more platoons, a band if available, and a salute battery if appropriate to the occasion. The sequence of events in a parade is not changed by the reduced size of the formation. Some of the es-

sential changes in a battalion parade to make the procedures suitable for a small unit parade are as follows:

(1) Platoons are formed on the final line.

(2) Attention and Adjutant's Call are not sounded.

(3) Neither an adjutant nor a commander's staff participate.

(4) Unit guidons are not used, as the unit colors represent the unit conducting the parade.

(5) Platoons pass in review in line formation rather than in column or mass formation.

(6) The band positions itself in front of the reviewing officer during the pass in review by executing a left trun at a point midway between the final line and the reviewing line and a right turn when on line and centered on the reviewing officer.

(7) When directed to pass in review, the commander of troops gives the order Right, FACE (and Right Shoulder Arms if appropriate), Forward, MARCH. Platoon leaders remain six steps away from and centered on their platoon; platoon sergeants remain one step away and centered on the platoon.

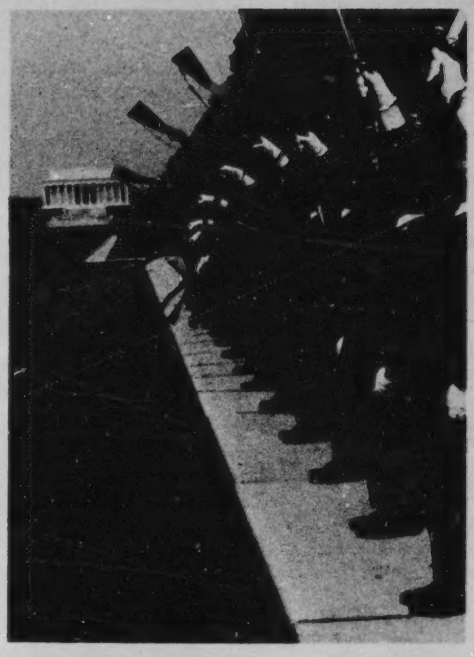
(8) At the first turn marker platoon leaders order Column Left, MARCH, and when centered on the reviewing line, the platoon leaders command Left Flank, MARCH, and the platoons pass in review in line formation.

*FORMING THE PARADE*

Platoons are formed on the final line, with platoons in the line formation. Troops are aligned as prescribed in company drill.

*SOUND OFF AND RETREAT*

The commander of troops, from his post halfway between the reviewing officer and the line of platoon leaders, commands Parade, REST, and when this movement is executed, he commands SOUNDS OFF. The movement and music of the band are exactly the same as in a battalion parade, execpt that in the small unit parade the band passes between the commander of troops and the line of platoon leaders when trooping the line. When the band has resumed its position and the music has stopped, the commander orders, ATTENTION and then Present, ARMS. He then faces about, salutes or presents sword to the reviewing officer, and faces about once more to face the formation. He commands Order, ARMS, and may order any such movements of the manual of arms which he deems appropriate.



*A U.S. Army drill team from the 1st Battalion, 3d Infantry (The Old Guard) performs at the Reflecting Pool between the Lincoln Memorial and the Washington Monument in Washington, D.C. Small unit ceremonies such as this one can be most impressive. (Photo credit Mike Brickman)*

*REPORT*

The commander of troops commands REPORT. Platoon leaders then give their respective reports in the same manner as do company commanders in a battalion parade. The commander of troops does not report to anyone. Orders are not normally published at a small unit ceremony.

*OFFICERS CENTER*

This movement is accomplished in the same manner as that prescribed for a battalion ceremony, except:

(1) The commander of troops assumes the duties of the battalion commander, after ordering Officers, Center, MARCH.

(2) Guidon bearers do not participate.

(3) Platoon leaders execute the movements of company commanders in the battalion parade.

*PASS IN REVIEW*

The commander of troops orders PASS IN REVIEW and then takes his post with the reviewing officer. Platoon leaders assume the duties prescribed for company commanders in a battalion parade; the movements for the platoons and the band are as prescribed earlier in this section.

*SEQUENCE OF COMMANDS FOR A SMALL UNIT PARADE*

When the troops are formed and aligned for the parade, and the commander of troops has taken his position halfway between the reviewing officer and the troops, the parade is ready to begin.

CMDR TRPS:
Parade, REST (The commander of troops remains at attention, facing the formation, unless otherwise noted.)
SOUND OFF
Company (Detachment, etc.), ATTENTION
Present, ARMS. (The commander of troops then faces about, executes the hand salute or present sword to the reviewing officer, and turns again to face the formation.)
Order, ARMS. (The commander may at this time order such movements of the manual of arms as he may desire.)
REPORT

PLT CMDRS:
(The platoon leaders, in succession from right to left, salute and report.)
"..... platoon, all present or accounted for," or, ..... platoon, ..... men absent."

CMDR TRPS:
Officers, Center MARCH

SR OFF:
(The senior officer gives this command when all platoon leaders and other officers have closed on the center of the formation and faced forward.)
Forward, MARCH
(The group is halted six paces from the commander of troops, and all salute without order.)
Officers, HALT

CMDR TRPS:
(If the officers are armed with swords.)
Carry, SWORDS
(If the officers are at hand salute.)
Ready, TWO
(The commander issues his instructions to the officers.)
Posts, MARCH
(All officers face about on the preparatory command "Posts", and step off on the command of execution "MARCH." They are halted when the rank of officers is six paces from the platoons in line.)

SR OFF:
Officers, HALT
Posts, MARCH

CMDR TRPS:
PASS IN REVIEW
(This command is issued after all officers have resumed their posts and come to the order. As the platoons and band begin their movements the commander of troops moves to his post beside the reviewing officer.)

## PRESENTATION OF AWARDS AND DECORATIONS

The presentation of awards and decorations is an occasion for a parade or

*The Army ROTC Drill Team from Stanford University marches in a ceremonial parade during an open house activity at the U.S. Naval Air Station, Moffett Field, California. Drill team performances may be included in any small unit parade.*

review. The awards or decorations are presented as a part of the parade or review ceremony. The presentations are made just prior to the passing in review of the troops.

The commanding officer of troops, from his post, commands Persons To Be Decorated And All Colors, Center, MARCH. On MARCH, persons to be decorated and all colors move by the most direct route to their posts as described in the following paragraphs.

Persons to be decorated form a single rank in the center of the command, ten paces in front of the line of company commanders. They form according to the rank of the decoration to be conferred, the highest ranking decoration on the right. Those to receive similar decorations take position by seniority within each decoration group.

Colors to be decorated form in a single rank five paces in front of the center of the line of persons to be decorated. The color to receive the highest decoration is on the right, the remainder to the left according to the rank of decorations to be conferred.

All other colors with color guards form in a single rank five paces behind the center of the line of persons to be decorated. Each color is in the same relative position as its parent organization within the formation for review.

The troop commander's staff under the command of the senior staff officer, executes right face, moves to the right a sufficient distance to allow clearance for the colors and persons to be decorated, then halts and executes left face. The commander of troops takes position five paces in front of the leading element of the group to be decorated. He executes an about face and commands over his shoulder Forward, MARCH. Upon his command the entire group marches forward and the band begins playing. The guide is center in all ranks. After the detachment has passed, the staff returns to its original position. When he has reached a point ten paces from the reviewing officer, the commander of troops halts the group to be decorated by the command Detachment, HALT. The band stops playing as the detachments halts. The troop commander then salutes the reviewing officer and reports, "Sir, the persons (and/or colors) to be decorated are present." The reviewing officer returns the salute and orders "Present the command, sir." The commander of troops returns to his post by the most direct route around the right flank of the persons and colors to be decorated. On reaching his post, he commands Present, ARMS, faces about and salutes. The band plays the NATIONAL ANTHEM. If only a field music is present, he sounds TO THE COLOR. On completion of the music, the commander of troops brings the command to order arms. The persons to be decorated begin and end their salutes on the order of the commander.

A designated staff officer reads the orders and citations of the awards to be presented. In ceremonies involving many individuals, the commanding officer may direct that only such portions of orders and citations deemed appropriate be

read. After the reading of all citations, the reviewing officer, accompanied by designated necessary staff personnel, advances to the colors to be decorated. He attaches the appropriate streamer to each color, then moves to the person to be decorated with the highest award. He attaches the appropriate decoration to the uniform over the left breast and shakes the hand of each person. Immediately after shaking hands, the person decorated salutes the reviewing officer. The reviewing officer returns the salute before proceeding to the next person to be decorated.

He then resumes his post. The persons decorated, at the command of the senior, form line at normal interval on the left of the local commander, or as otherwise directed. The colors return to their posts by the most direct route. When the colors have taken their posts, the reviewing officer directs the commander of troops to march the command in review.

## CHANGE OF COMMAND CEREMONY

During a change of command ceremony the executive officer of the battalion (regiment) will act as battalion (regimental) commander so the outgoing commanding officer may participate in the ceremony with the incoming commanding officer.

The ceremony proceeds in the same manner as the battalion ceremonial parade up to the point where the commanding officer directs the adjutant, PUBLISH THE ORDERS, SIR.

The adjutant then faces the troops and commands ATTENTION TO ORDERS. He publishes pertinent excerpts from the incoming commander's orders. Upon completion, he commands Officers, Center, MARCH. The ceremony continues as described for the ceremonial parade until the officers have returned to their posts from officer center.

The outgoing and incoming commanding officers then take position in the reviewing stand. If the outgoing commanding officer is entitled to musical honors, they will be rendered at this point. When both have taken their proper positions, the battalion commander directs the adjutant, "Deliver the color to the commanding officer." The adjutant returns sword, if so armed, takes the most direct route to a position 4 paces in front of the color guard, salutes, and takes the organizational color from the junior color bearer. Carrying the color as nearly in the position of carry color as he can without a sling, he marches by the most direct route to a position two paces in front of the outgoing commanding officer.

The commanding officer of troops commands Present, ARMS. On this order, the entire parade executes present arms, and the adjutant transfers the color to the outgoing commanding officer. The outgoing commanding officer passes the color to be the incoming commanding offiecr. The adjutant salutes as the color is passing from one to the other. The passing of the color signifies the transfer of command. The new commanding officer then passes the color back to the adjutant, at which time the commanding officer of troops orders Order, ARMS. The old and new commanding officers face each other and exchange salutes. The adjutant then returns the color to the color guard by the most direct route, salutes the colors, resumes his post behind the commanding officer of troops, and draws sword. If the new commanding officer is entitled to musical honors, they will be rendered at this time. The ceremony then continues as in a parade.

## STREET PARADES

Street parades are commanded by a person designated as Grand Marshal.

He appoints a chief of staff and aides, and issues an order concerning formation, movement, and dismissal of the parade. This order includes:

(1) The names of his staff officers and when and where they are to report to him.

(2) The assignment of organizations and their order in brigades and divisions, and the names and assignments of brigade commanders and marshals of divisions.

(3) The streets upon which the brigades and divisions are to form, the direction their lines or columns face, where the right or head of columns rest, and width of the fronts of the subdivisions in column.

(4) The times for each division to complete its forming and be ready to march.

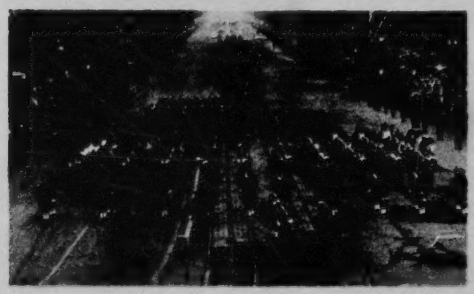
(5) The time and place from which the head of the parade will move, the line of march, and the direction of guide.

(6) Honors to be paid during the march.

(7) Instructions for the dismissal of the parade.

(8) Instructions regarding uniform and equipment.

The Grand Marshal may review the parade at some point beyond the reviewing stand before its dismissal.



*In January of 1957 the Inauguration Parade for Dwight D. Eisenhower included this band, with bagpipe and drum coprs, from The Citadel, a college in Charleston, South Carolina. Navy midshipmen and an Army cavalry group follow the band.*

The order of precedence in street parades is as follows:

(1) Cadets, United States Military Academy.

(2) Midshipmen, United States Naval Academy.

(3) Cadets, United States Air Force Academy.

(4) Cadets, United States Coast Guard Academy.

(5) United State Army.

(6) United States Marine Corps.

(7) United State Navy.

(8) United States Air Force.

(9) United States Coast Guard.

(10) Army National Guard of the United States.

(11) Army Reserve.

(12) Marine Corps Reserve.

(13) Naval Reserve.

(14) Air National Guard of the United States

(15) Air Force Reserve.

(16) Coast Guard Reserve.

(17) Other training organizations of the Army, Marine Corps, Navy, Air Force, and Coast Guard in that order, respectively.

(18) Veterans and patriotic organizations in the order prescribed by the Grand Marshal.

(19) When foreign troops are invited to participate in parades within the territorial jurisdiction of the United States, they will be assigned a position of honor ahead of United States troops, and next after the Grand Marshal and his staff. A small detachment of United States troops will immediately precede the foreign troops as a guard of honor.

The Grand Marshal marches at the head of the parade. His staff, chief of staff on the right, marches one and one-half paces to his rear in one or more ranks. The Grand Marshal is usually preceded by mounted police who clear the way. The marshal of the first divi-

*The Corps of Cadets from the United States Military Academy at West Point is shown marching in the Inauguration Parade for Mr. Eisenhower and Mr. Nixon in 1957.*

sion marches twenty-four paces in rear of the staff of the Grand Marshal.

Odd-numbered divisions are usually in streets to the right of the line of march, the first division nearest the starting point. Even-numbered divisions are similarly formed on streets to the left of the line of march. Among formations which may be used for street parades are columns of threes (or fours) abreast; and mass formation. Vehicles march in single column or column of twos, threes, or fours, depending upon the width of the street. In long parades rifles may be carried at sling arms with fixed bayonets.

## REVIEWS

A review is a military ceremony designed to (1) honor a visiting higher commander, official, or dignitary; (2) permit a higher commander, official, or dignitary to observe the state of training of a command; (3) present decorations and awards; or (4) honor or recognize unit or individual achievements.

The review consist of four parts, two of which are not normally included in a parade. These four parts are:

1. Formation of troops.
2. Presentation and honors.
3. Inspection (trooping the line)
4. March in review.

The formation and movement of troops at a review are the same as for a parade; however the review may include vehicles, heavy weapons, or equipment which would not be included in the formation of a parade.

*The Drum Major leads a Marine Drum and Bugle Corps from the Marine Barricks, Ft. Meade, Maryland, into the Star Fort, at Fort McHenry, Baltimore, Maryland, where Francis Scott Key was inspired to pen the words of our National Anthem. Drum and Bugle Corps units often provide music for honor ceremonies.*

The trooping of the line by the band is not included in the review ceremony. Other parade events that are not included in the review are the receiving of the report, publishing of the orders, and officers center.

*REVIEWING PARTY*

After the troops have formed on line and have been presented to the commander of troops, the reviewing officer, with his staff, moves to his post to receive the review.

The position of the reviewing officer is on the right of the local commander. Distinguished civilian guests will take their position on the local commander's left. If a civilian is to receive the review, he takes his position on the right of the local commander. If necessary, he is given an explanation of the ceremony by his escort or the local commander.

*PRESENTATION AND HONORS*

As the reviewing officer approaches his position, the commander of troops brings his command to attention. When the reviewing officer is in position, the commander of troops directs his command to present arms. When all units have presented arms, he faces the reviewing officer and salutes. His staff salutes with him.

If his rank so entitles him, honors to the reviewing officer are then rendered (U.S. Navy Regulations). The band or field music sounds the honors upon the salute of the commander of troops. When the honors are completed, the

commander of troops terminates his salute (his staff with him) and brings his troops to order arms. If the formation consists of more than one battalion he orders AT EASE.

When artillery is present in the formation, or if saluting guns are available, and when the commanding officer deems it practicable, a salute may be fired. The first gun is fired following the last note of the honors. The firing detachment rejoins its unit after firing the last gun. For those entitled to a gun salute, this honor may be rendered in addition to the salute described in United States Navy Regulations. It should be limited to special ceremonial occasions.

When the grade of the reviewing officer entitles him to the honor, each organizational color salutes with its command. The reviewing officer, his staff, and all military spectators in uniform and covered, salute at the first note of the music. They hold their salutes until the music and gun salute are completed.

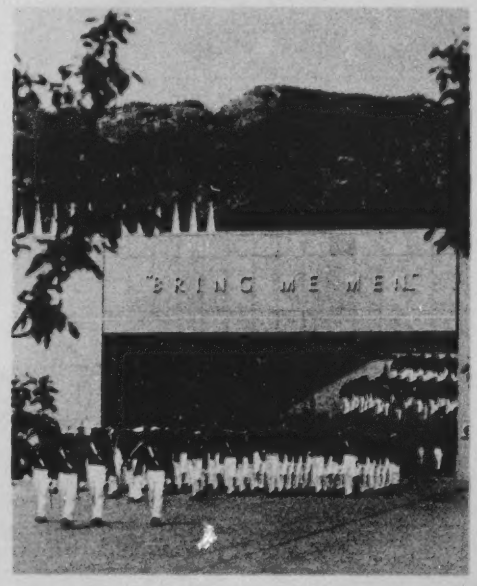
*INSPECTION*

After the honors, the reviewing officer and his staff move toward the commander of troops. They halt six paces from him. The commander of troops then conducts the reviewing party around the formation. Beginning with the unit on the right of the line, they pass along the front of the line of troops to the left. In large reviews, the reviewing party passes between the line of regimental staffs and battalion commanders. They then pass around the rear of the troops. The reviewing officer may direct his staff, or any part of it, to remain at the troop commander's or his own post while he troops the line. When trooping the line, the unit commander and the commander of troops remain on the troops. All accompanying staff members follow their respective commanders in single file. The band plays while the reviewing officer is trooping the line.

The reviewing officer makes whatever general inspection is not part of the ceremony of review.

As the reviewing officer approaches each unit on the line, the unit commander brings his unit to attention and commands Eyes, RIGHT. As the reviewing officer passes to the front, each man turns his head and eyes to the left, following the reviewing officer until he is looking straight to the front. Commanders of massed units salute when the reviewing officer approaches. Other officers in the formation do not.

Upon arriving at the right of the band after passing around the line of troops, the commander of troops halts and salutes. The reviewing party then returns to its post. If decorations or awards are




*Members of the Cadet Wing at the U.S. Air Force Academy in Colorado parade through the portals of the Academy. Located in the foothills of the Rocky Mountains, the Academy offers a comprehensive education in aerospace technology and the humanities. Reviews such as the one pictured above are an integral part of military training at the Academy.*

to be presented, that ceremony is carried out after the reviewing officer and the commander of troops have returned to their posts.

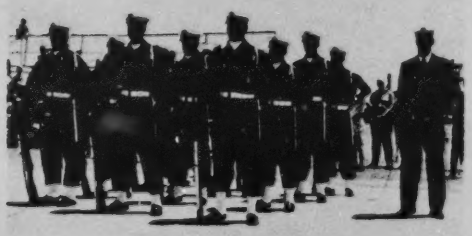
The review ceremony is concluded by the marching in review of the troops. This is done in the same way as for a parade.

## HONORS

Honors are those formal courtesies rendered to important official visitors such as heads of state and other dignitaries. Other occasions for the rendering of honors are military funerals, the passing of ships close by at sea, and at Colors ceremonies or other times when the national flag is honored.

Navy regulations prescribe the time and manner for the rendering of honors by Marine and Navy units. These honors usually take the form of honor guards, escorts of honor, musical salutes, and gun salutes.

Gun salutes may be fired by naval guns, field pieces, or rifles. The status of the person being honored determines the number of volleys to be fired. The twenty-one-gun salute is the highest honor and is generally reserved for heads of state.



*The Naval Reserve Officers Training Corps Drill Team from the University of California in Berkeley, California serves as an honor guard at the Naval Air Station, Moffett Field, San Jose, California, during a station open house ceremony.*

### *HONOR GUARD*

For a personage who merits the full guard (U.S. Navy Regulations), the honor guard, when practicable, will consist of at least two platoons of riflemen, and will include a band and colors. If insufficient personnel are available to meet this requirement, the full guard may consist of not less than one squad of riflemen.

### *HONORS FOR OFFICIAL VISITS*

The senior officer present, the commander of the installation being visited, or the representative of either, is the host and participates in the ceremony. He ascertains from the visiting person whether he desires to inspect the honor guard, to have it pass in review, or neither, or both, and advises him of actions to be taken during the ceremony. He will pass on to the commander of the guard, as quickly as practicable, information regarding the sequence of events.

Prior to the arrival of the visiting person, the honor guard will form in line at normal interval and at open ranks. The band, if present, takes position to the right of and in line with the honor guard. The colors, if present, are posted in the approximate center of the formation, excluding the band, and on line with the honor guard. The commander of the honor guard takes post six paces in front of the center of the guard.

The field music sounds *Attention* upon appearance of the visiting person, and the honor guard is called to attention. The host welcomes the person and escorts him to the receiving line (if any) where greetings are exchanged. At the conclusion of the greetings, the host escorts the person to a position directly in front of and facing the commander of the honor guard and takes position on the left of the person. The commander of the honor guard then exe-

*The Army's 8th Infantry Kiltie Band from Ft. Carson, Colorado is pictured as it presented musical honors in a dedication parade in 1954. It is led here by a corporal who is a native of Scotland doing an authentic Highland Fling to the music of his fellow bandsmen's bagpipes.*

cutes carry sword, faces about, brings the honor guard to present arms, faces about again and presents sword.

As the commander of the honor guard executes present sword, the band, if present, plays the appropriate honors. If a gun salute is to be fired, it is begun immediately after the last note of the music. During the rendering of honors and the firing of the gun salute, all personnel in the vicinity of the honor guard formation stand at attention facing the person. Personnel in uniform shall salute during the playing of musical honors, but not during the gun salute. The person, the host, and members of the official parties of both, salute during the rendering of honors and the firing of the gun salute.

On completion of the musical honors or the gun salute, if fired, the commander of the honor guard executes carry sword, faces about, brings the honor guard to order arms, faces about again, executes present sword and reports, "Sir, the honor guard is formed."

If the person desires neither to inspect the guard nor have it pass in review, the honor guard remains at attention until he departs. If the person desires an inspection or wants the honor guard to pass in review, the senior officer gives the appropriate command to the commander of the honor guard.

## *ESCORT OF HONOR*

Escorts of honor are detailed to receive and escort civilian and military persons of high rank. Troops ordered to this duty are selected for their military appearance and superior discipline.

The escort is formed in line opposite the place where the person to be honored is to present himself. The band forms on the flank of the escort toward which it is to march. The escort is brought to attention upon the appearance of the person to be honored. When he has taken the position from which he will receive the honors, the escort is brought to present arms and the honors due his rank are rendered. Upon completion of the honors, the escort is brought to order arms.

Ordinarily the person so honored will, upon completion of the honors, inspect his escort. The escort then forms in column and takes up the march. The honored person, with his staff or retinue, takes position in rear of the column. When the person leaves the escort, it again forms in line; and when he has taken position from which to receive them, the same honors are rendered as upon his arrival.

When the position of the escort is a considerable distance from the point where the person to be honored is received—where a courtyard or wharf intervenes—a double line of sentries, facing inboard, is posted from that point to the escort. These sentries salute as the honored person passes their individual positions. In this case an officer is detailed to accompany the honored person from his place of reception to the escort.

# CHALLENGES IN LEADERSHIP

PART TWO

## LEADERSHIP

*General Robert E. Cushman, Jr., USMC*

41

# ROBERT E. CUSHMAN, JR.

## GENERAL, U. S. MARINE CORPS
## 25th COMMANDANT OF THE MARINE CORPS

General Robert Everton Cushman, Jr., who earned the Navy Cross—the nation's second highest combat award —during World War II, became Commandant of the Marine Corps January 1, 1972.

As a 29 year old lieutenant colonel, General Cushman was awarded the Navy Cross for extraordinary heroism from July 21 to August 20, 1944, while commanding the 2d Battalion, 9th Marine Regiment, 3d Marine Division during the recapture of Guam. His citation states in part:

> When his battalion was ordered to seize and hold a strongly organized and defended enemy strongpoint which had been holding up the advance for some days, Lieutenant Colonel Cushman directed the attacks of his battalion and the repulse of numerous Japanese counterattacks, fearlessly exposing himself to heavy hostile rifle, machine gun and mortar fire in order to remain in the front lines and obtain firsthand knowledge of the enemy situation. Following three days of bitter fighting culminating in a heavy Japanese counterattack which pushed back the flank of his battalion, he personally led a platoon into the gap and, placing it for defense, repelled the hostile force. By his inspiring leadership, courage and devotion to duty, he contributed materially to the success of the mission with the annihilation of one enemy battalion and the rout of another. . . .

Born December 24, 1914, in St. Paul, Minn., Robert E. Cushman, Jr. attended Central High School there and at sixteen, before graduating, was appointed to the U.S. Naval Academy. Graduating 10th in his class of 442, he was commissioned a Marine second lieutenant on June 6, 1935.

Lieutenant Cushman completed Marine Officer's Basic School at the Philadelphia Navy Yard, then served briefly at the Marine Corps Base, San Diego, Ca. In February 1936, he arrived in Shanghai, China and served as a platoon commander with the 4th Marines, and later the 2d Marine Brigade. On his return to the United States in March 1938, he served at naval shipyards in Brooklyn, N. Y. and Portsmouth, Va. He was promoted to first lieutenant in August 1938.

In April 1939, Lieutenant Cushman was assigned to the Marine Detachment at the New York World's Fair, and was subsequently stationed at the Marine Barracks, Quantico, Va. He was promoted to captain in March 1941.

In June 1941, Captain Cushman reported aboard the USS PENNSYLVANIA at San Diego, en route to Pearl Harbor, as Commanding Officer of the ship's Marine Detachment. He was serving in this capacity when the Japanese attacked the ship and other naval installations at Pearl Harbor on December 7, 1941. Upon his transfer from the PENNSYLVANIA, he joined the 9th Marines at San Diego as a battalion

executive officer in May 1942, and that same month was promoted to major.

Major Cushman hiked from San Diego to Camp Pendleton with his unit in September 1942, and embarked for the Pacific area in January 1943.

That month, Major Cushman was appointed Commanding Officer of the 2d Battalion, 9th Marines, and in May 1943 was promoted to lieutenant colonel. During the two years he held that post, he led his battalion repeatedly into combat, earning the Bronze Star Medal with Combat "V" on Bougainville, the Navy Cross during the recapture of Guam, and the Legion of Merit with Combat "V" during the Iwo Jima campaign.

Upon his return to the United States in May 1945, Lieutenant Colonel Cushman was stationed at Marine Corps Schools, Quantico, Va. for three years. During that period he completed the Senior School, served as an instructor in the Command and Staff School, and during the latter two years was Supervisory Instructor, Amphibious Warfare School. In June 1948, he was named Head of the Amphibious Warfare Branch, Office of Naval Research, Navy Department, Washington, D. C. From October 1949 until May 1951, he served on the staff of the Central Intelligence Agency. While there, he was promoted to colonel in May 1950.

In June 1951, Colonel Cushman joined the staff of the Commander in Chief, U.S. Naval Forces, Eastern Atlantic and Mediterranean Fleet, in London, serving as Amphibious Plans Officer until June 1953. Following his return to the United States, he was transferred to Norfolk, Va., where he served as a member of the faculty of the Armed Forces Staff College, and in July 1954 became Director of the Plans and Operations Division there.

In July 1956, he assumed command of the 2d Marine Regiment, at Camp Lejeune, N. C.

Assigned to Washington, D. C. in February 1957, he served four years on the staff of then Vice President Richard Nixon as Assistant to the Vice President for National Security Affairs. While serving in this capacity he was promoted to brigadier general in July 1958.

Following his departure from Washington, Brigadier General Cushman became Assistant Division Commander, 3d Marine Division, on Okinawa, in March 1961. He was promoted to major general in August 1961, and in September assumed command of the Division.

In July 1962, he reported to Headquarters Marine Corps in Washington, D. C. where he was assigned as both Assistant Chief of Staff, G-2 (Intelligence) and Assistant Chief of Staff, G-3 (Plans, Operations and Training) in which capacities he served until January 1, 1964. From that date until June 1964 he served as Assistant Chief of Staff, G-3, only.

From June 1964 until March 1967, Major General Cushman served in the dual capacity of Commanding General, Marine Corps Base, Camp Pendleton, Ca. and Commanding General, 4th Marine Division Headquarters Nucleus. In June 1966 he formed the 5th Marine Division and he additionally served as its Commanding General at Camp Pendleton until November 1966.

Major General Cushman was ordered to the Republic of Vietnam in April 1967 and was assigned as the Deputy Commander, III Marine Amphibious Force. He was promoted to lieutenant general in June 1967, upon assuming duty as Commanding General, III Marine Amphibious Force—the largest combined combat unit ever led by a Marine.

For his service as Deputy Commander, from April to May 1967, and subsequently as Commanding General, III Marine Amphibious Force, from June to December 1967, he was awarded the Distinguished Service Medal. A Gold Star in lieu of a second Distinguished Service Medal was awarded for his service as Commanding General, III Marine Amphibious Force; Senior Advisor, I Corps Tactical Zone; and I Corps Coordinator for United States/Free World Military Assistance Forces, from January 1968 to March 1969.

On March 6, 1969, while serving in Vietnam, General Cushman was nominated by President Richard M. Nixon to be the Deputy Director of the Central Intelligence Agency; his nomination was confirmed by the Senate, April 21, 1969.

Upon his return to the United States, he served briefly as Director of Personnel/Deputy Chief of Staff (Manpower) at Headquarters Marine Corps. Lieutenant General Cushman subsequently served as Deputy Director of the Central Intelligence Agency from April 1969 through December 1971, for which service he was awarded the Distinguished Intelligence Medal.

General and Mrs. Cushman, the former Audrey Boyce of Portsmouth, Va., were married in Portsmouth on January 17, 1940. They have two children, Roberta Lind, born November 13, 1941, and Robert E. III, born June 12, 1943.

CHAPTER 3

# THE LEADER

Someone once asked a father if his little boy was a leader or a follower. He answered immediately: "He is a leader without any followers." His answer was perfectly accurate, and it helps us understand the answer to the larger question of whether leaders are born or made. Probably all of us are born with the need and the desire to to lead. The urges which prompt us to "take charge" seem to be the same ones which motivate us in our other activities—the needs for security, acceptance, recognition, and stimulation. However, just as our need for water—no matter how desperate it may be—can never be allowed to overpower our judgement and cause us to drink something which will make us sick, so our other needs must also be disciplined; and our ways of satisfying them must be tempered with judgment, foresight, discretion and humanness. Those who can learn to see their personal desires within the perspective of a larger goal find they can satisfy their own needs and those of others as well. They soon discover that other men and women look to them for leadership. On the other hand, those who do not learn these lessons frequently find themselves in the position of the little five year old—a leader without any followers. In this chapter you will discover how your own basic needs stimulate you to lead and why these needs, though perfectly normal and healthy, can interfere with your long range goals if they are not understood, disciplined, and channeled into constructive directions.

## *QUALITIES OF A LEADER*

Understanding yourself is probably the most essential step in developing your leadership capabilities. But there are other factors which can also be all important to a leader. You need to know what these are and how they contribute to your ability to lead. Most of these factors are inner qualities, intrinsic aspects of the leader's character. As such, they have to be developed until they are truly part of you. They cannot be faked. They cannot be put on and taken off; and they cannot be borrowed from someone else.

*Technical or professional knowledge* is the first of these, and it is essential in any leadership assignment. Regardless of the circumstances or the personalities involved, the leader must know what he's doing. Knowledge, of course, is not always the most important quality (especially in a group where all the members are experts) but it is the one factor that is always important. People have to feel that their leader knows at least as much as they do. Since knowledge can only come from study and experience, the best and only way to acquire this quality is to take advantage of every opportunity to learn as much as you can about your field and put your knowledge to work wherever you get the chance. Make it a lifetime habit to keep on learning.

*Calmness under stress* is another essential quality in a leader. Rudyard Kipling says that if you can keep your

head while everyone else is losing theirs, "You'll be a man, My son." Actually, you'll be a good deal more than that. You'll be a leader. Human beings have a healthy distrust of the panicky leader. Whatever his rank, they instinctively turn from him and seek direction from those who are not paralyzed with fear or indecision. Many a famous world leader got his start in a crisis situation, and such a chance may come to you if you're ready. You can start getting ready by getting yourself physically fit. People go to pieces more quickly when they're exhausted. Therefore, the better your physical condition the longer you'll be able to stand up under stress. Learn, too, to "bite the bullet," to face threatening situations without flinching or whimpering. Tests and examinations will give you plenty of opportunities to practice this Spartan attitude. In time, the attitude will become a habit so strong you can't break it. Finally, learn to think ahead, to anticipate the things that can happen and to be prepared for them. Then, when everyone else is yelling "What do we do now?" you can say with a firm steady voice: "I have a plan."

*Creativity* is needed in a leader—not the genius of a symphony composer, but the practical problem-solving inventiveness which any person can develop. Make it a habit to be observant, to recognize problems when you see them, to be alert to new possibilities, and to practice the problem-solving techniques taught you in JROTC. Make it a habit also to listen to the suggestions of your peers and subordinates. If one of them has a good idea, use it. And be very sure you give him credit for it. Not only will the good idea improve your group's performance, but your acceptance will encourage others to use their imaginations. You might uncover a perfectly brilliant idea which some shy person had thought up a long time ago but had been afraid to suggest. Learn also to judge ideas without criticizing people. You may have to throw out an idea, but you don't want its creator to stop thinking. Rather you want to encourage your subordinates to come to you with their ideas. You can do that by guaranteeing them a friendly hearing and by being sure they get full credit.

*The ability to communicate* is particularly important in a leader. You must be able to convey to others your ideas, feelings and desires. You must be able to express to your subordinates your appreciation of their importance and value and your understanding and interest in their welfare. Many times you will communicate more by what you do than by what you say. Still, you must be able to use language. Pay particular atention in your English classes. Get your teachers to help you learn how to shape words into sentences that will say what you want them to say on the written page. Make it a habit to read well-written books on subjects that interest you. Just as we tend to talk like the people we talk to, so we tend to write like the authors of the books we read. If you really want to be good with language, practice writing poetry. Poets use language more skillfully than anyone else; and it is no accident that General George S. Patton—that absolute master of the stirring speech—was also a poet. Similarly, take a speech course if you possibly can; and whether you can or not, take advantage of every opportunity to practice your public speaking. It doesn't matter if you fall all over yourself the first several times you do it. The important thing is that you will get the practice. In time, speaking to a group will feel like the most natural thing in the world—and one of the most enjoyable.

*The drive for self-knowledge and personal improvement* is another quality

common to successful leaders. Every so often you need to stop and take stock of yourself. You need to look ahead, decide where you're going and what your needs will be in the near future. Then you need to go over your personal skills and abilities just as you would go over your camping gear before setting off on a trip. Some of your skills may need brushing off or sharpening up, and there may be others which you won't have at all. Your personal inventory will help you set your goals and establish your priorities. Try also to look ahead to see what your opportunities will be and how you can take advantage of them to acquire other abilities you may not need until later on.

*The ability to perceive reality,* to see things as they really are, is very important to a leader. A good leader can judge people accurately. He can tell if someone is being honest and sincere. He isn't taken in by a phony. Nor is he fooled by himself. He acknowledges his own moods, fears and prejudices and doesn't let them distort his judgment. You will, of course, want to believe the best about people, particularly when they are your friends. But you will need to learn to tell the difference between what you want to believe and what you know to be so. Once you admit that you and your closest friends have limits and imperfections, you will discover that people do not have to be perfect in order to be valuable and worthwhile people. Out of that discovery will come a tolerance and an acceptance of reality that will make it much easier for you to be comfortable with the world as it really is and with people as they actually are. Your own relaxed composure, in turn, will inspire confidence in you and in your judgment.

*A feeling for humanity* is an extremely important leadership characteristic. It usually comes easiest to those who have already learned to see things as they are. Once you have learned something of human frailties, and have been able to accept them in yourself and others, you will find it much easier to be sympathetic toward people in general. Your sympathy and fellow feeling will show through in the way you act. Your subordinates will recognize it. They will know you have a sincere desire to help others and a strong feeling of identification with the group. Because they know you are not acting from selfish motives they will forgive you if, on occasion, you show feelings of anger, disgust, or impatience with others. They will know that you too are only human.

*A sense of humor* is another valuable quality that comes from being able to see things as they are. Having a sense of humor does not mean knowing a standup comic's catalogue of dirty jokes. It means the ability to see the ridicuolus aspects of an embarrassing or threatening situation. If you can point to these things and laugh at them, you can break the tension or relieve the embarrassment. You can help your group relax and get back to work. In addition being able to laugh at yourself will make it easier for other people to see you as a human being, identify with you, and support you.

*A sense of duty* is the final and dominant factor in any good leader. You must feel a strong sense of responsibility for your mission and your people. Remember: the mission and the welfare of your subordinates come first. You come second. You must, first of all, form a clear idea of what you're trying to accomplish, then you must keep from getting so close to the trees that you can't see the forest. That is, you must not allow yourself to become so engrossed in the immediate task that you lose sight of the long range goal. If you have a definite vision of where

you're going and how you're going to get there, and if you go about accomplishing your mission in an unselfish way, you will impress others as being a leader of broad vision, a person who is above petty things and free from worry. Your strong sense of mission will stand at the center of your actions and will give direction and purpose to your efforts.

## *TEMPTATIONS OF LEADERSHIP*

One of the most important and least discussed aspects of leadership is the ability to stand up to the temptations that come with the office. Most of these are so obvious that a person of character should have no trouble recognizing them or avoiding them. Less easy to recognize are the temptations which do not come from without but rather from within ourselves. These are associated with our basic human needs; and while they are extremely unlikely to send you to jail, they might prevent you from realizing your full potential. You need to know what they are so that you can learn to recognize them and deal with them. Let's look at the four most common temptations and at several ways of overcoming them.

*The temptation to play it safe* comes from one of our most essential needs —the need for security. In fact, one of the reasons we join groups in the first place is because we feel more secure when we are surrounded by people we know and trust. Curiously, the leader of the group is the least "secure" member of it for it is he who must calculate the risks and make the hard decisions. Of course, the better you know your job, the easier it will be to make correct decisions and the more comfortable you will feel. However, you're likely to find that as soon as you get really good at one job you'll be promoted to another where you won't feel nearly as confident. Being unsure what to do, you may be faced with a strong temptation to "play it safe." Usually, playing it safe means letting the group go on doing whatever it has been doing in whatever way it has been doing it even though you feel it could do more or do it better. Or playing it safe might mean deciding to do whatever will be least controversial, least likely to arouse criticism. Unfortunately, playing it safe usually causes more trouble later when it becomes obvious that the group isn't working up to its potential. But if you're new to the job, how can you know what to do? The answer is that you can find out by making an objective analysis. In its simplest form, you make a list of the advantages and disadvantages of the things being considered and compare them point by point. You go over the arguments for and against each course of action and decide which one will best accomplish the goal and meet the real needs of the group. In the process of making this examination, you will learn a great deal about the job and you will be prepared to defend your decision with facts and logic.

*The temptation to do what you think other people want you to do* comes from wanting to belong. The need to belong isn't just a matter of wanting security. We human beings need each other for company, and we feel very uncomfortable if we think we're about to be shut out of the group. The leader "belongs" to the group more surely than anyone else; yet he must also live with something called "the loneliness of command." This is the feeling you get when you have to make an unpopular decision. Many times you will have to make the right decision knowing that it will not be the popular one. The first few times you have to carry out an unpopular decision you may worry that your followers won't like you for it and

that if they don't like you they won't follow you. Once you've been through this sort of thing a few times, however, the fear will go away. You will discover that a leader does not lead by winning popularity, but by earning the deep trust and respect of his group. You earn that respect by making the hard decision and assuming the responsibility for it. The person who tries to do what he thinks the group wants is really trying to shirk his responsibility. The group knows it, and it loses respect for him. This is not to say that you don't want to involve your people in the decision-making process. You certainly do want their ideas, their observations, and the benefit of their experience. Still, you want to make it very clear that the final decision, and the responsibility for it, is yours and yours alone. As President Harry Truman used to say: "The buck stops here."

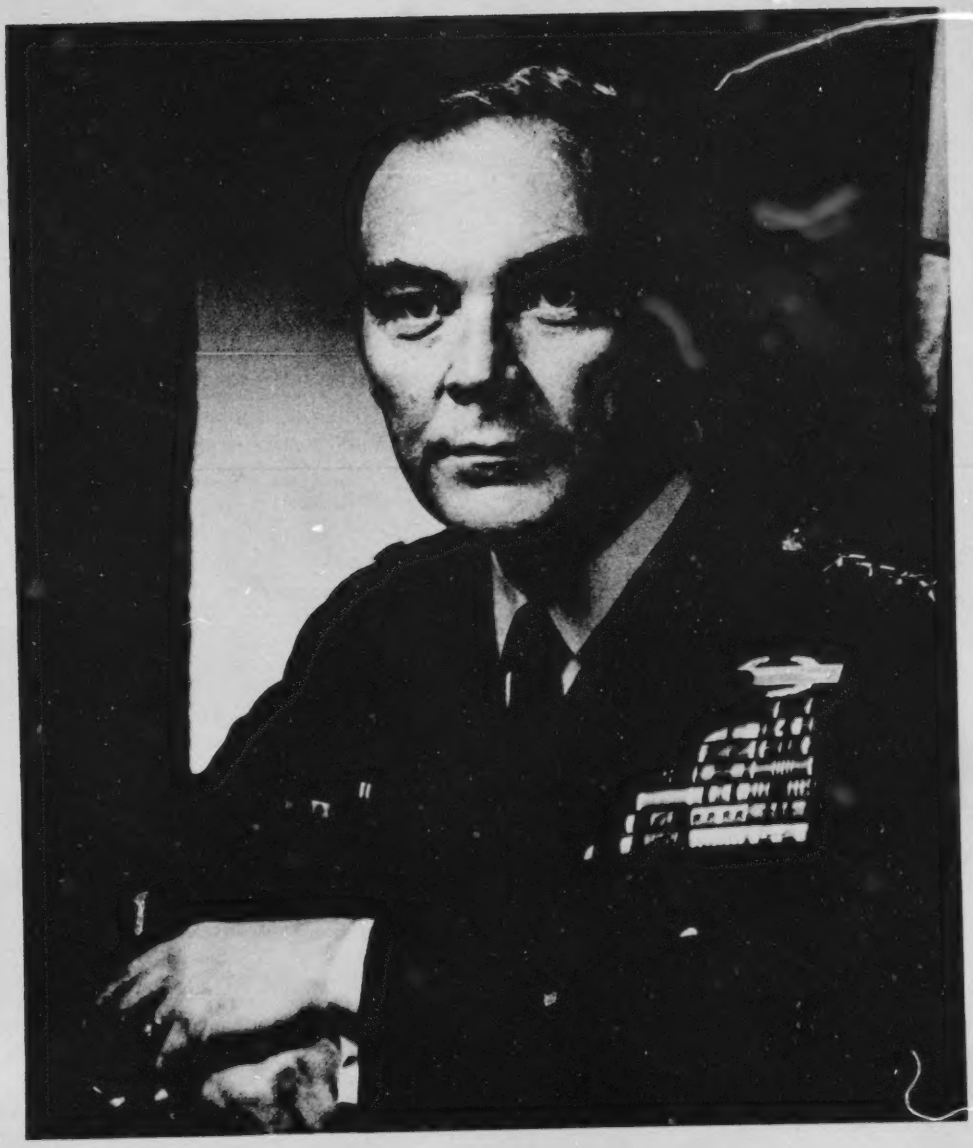
*The temptation to put recognition ahead* of accomplishment comes from the fact that leaders, like followers, need and deserve recognition. Usually they have done far more to deserve it. Unfortunately, the world is not always fair or just, and the time will come when you will not get the recognition you know you are entitled to. When such a disappointment comes—and it will—it will test your character more severely than anything else that can happen to you. You will feel cheated. You may be bitter and angry about it. You may want to quit, or you may want to put aside what you know you should be doing and put your efforts into something else that you think will bring you quicker recognition. Resist those temptations! Get off by yourself and think it through. Resolve first to learn a lesson. Promise yourself that none of your people will ever have to feel the way you do because their efforts went unrecognized by you. Then remember that the greatest men of history have had their disappointments too, and they weren't stopped by them. Remember also that disappointments can only hurt you in the long run if you let them divert you from your goal. Whether you let them or not depends on your own strength of character. Finally, look at what you've accomplished. If it was truly worth doing in the first place, then it is still a thing to be proud of whether other people applaud you or not. Now, get back to work. Give your group the leadership it deserves —and can't get if you're brooding over your own disappointments. Forget yourself. Devote your efforts to your mission and the welfare of your people. Do not worry. In the long run you will get your reward.

*The temptation to set impossible goals* usually follows the exhilaration of accomplishing something you just knew you couldn't do. You certainly know by now what a fantastic feeling that is and how exciting it can be. You need to remember, however, that in the joy of hard-won victory there is a danger. You may be tempted to jump ahead past your next planned goal and attempt something that is still far beyond your group's present ability. Your high school football team may have just won the state championship. Still, you're probably not ready to take on the Green Bay Packers—at least not yet. The leader who lets his excitement or his impatience blind him to reality is doing his group a serious disservice. He is setting them up for what is sure to be a severe disappointment. Once they realize—and they will—that his goal is completely unrealistic, they will grow cynical and apathetic and they will cease to believe in him. Avoid this problem by setting a goal just a little out of your group's present reach. They will strive for such a goal, grow toward it and surprise themselves by accomplishing it. And they will see you as the

one who led them to victory. You can then take stock of your outfit and choose another goal which, again, is just a little out of reach.

*THE IDEAL LEADER*

The ideal leader is a person like other people, a human being with his own unique combination of personal strengths and weaknesses. Unlike those who stay in the ranks, he has learned to overcome his weaknesses and make the most of his strengths. He knows his job and knows it well, though it probably took him a long time to learn it. He has learned to remain calm under stress. He can look ahead and see problems coming and he is ready for them when they arrive. Similarly, he is a creative person who knows how to analyze problems and solve them. He can communicate those answers both orally and in writing. He is constantly seeking to increase his knowledge of himself and the world around him. He is realistic about himself and others and is not shocked or shaken when people act as people will. Knowing human nature as he does, he is sympathetic and helpful and these qualities show through in the way he acts. He has a sense of humor, and, most important, a strong sense of duty which stands at the center of his actions and gives direction and purpose to all his efforts.



*General Alexander M. Haig, Jr., USA*

# GENERAL ALEXANDER MEIGS HAIG, JR.
# UNITED STATES ARMY

In May of 1973 General Alexander Haig culminated a rapid rise up the ladder of success by being named as White House Chief of Staff by President Nixon. This unexpected appointment came just a few months after the General had, in September of 1972, been promoted over 240 other Army generals to his present rank, and assigned to the billet of Vice Chief of Staff, U.S. Army. General Haig was placed on the retired rolls of the U.S. Army on 1 August 1973. Alexander Haig is one of the new breed of military officers, one who is knowledgeable in politics, international affairs, and statesmanship, as well as people and military affairs. He has been a combat commander in Korea and Vietnam; a staff officer in the Far East, Europe, the Pentagon, and at the Army and Naval Academies; for four years he was assistant to Dr. Henry Kissinger, and Deputy Assistant to the President, for national security affairs. He played a key role in the reorganization and administration of the National Security Council, and in President Nixon's efforts to negotiate a settlement of the Vietnam conflict.

Alexander Meigs Haig, Jr. was born in a suburb of Philadelphia in 1924. His father died when he was ten, and he worked at various jobs to help with family finances. He was a newspaper boy, a post office worker, and worked for an oil company and a department store. With money he had earned he spent two years at the University of Notre Dame, majoring in arts and letters, before receiving an appointment to the United States Military Academy at West Point. Thus he was able to fulfill a boyhood ambition to make a career in the military services. He graduated in the middle of his class, and a few years later learned the art of giving briefings while serving on the staff of General Douglas MacArthur in Korea. It was in Japan in 1950 that Haig married a general's daughter who was a concert pianist. The Haigs now have three children, two sons and a daughter.

In the years between the Korean and Vietnamese conflicts, General Haig served as an armor officer, a tactics instructor and commander of cadets at both West Point and the Naval Academy, and as a staff officer in Europe and for the Department of the Army in the Pentagon. During this period of time he studied business at Columbia University and received a degree in international relations from Georgetown University. The General also graduated from both the Naval War College and the Army War College. As assistant to the Secretary of the Army, and later as special assistant to the Secretary of Defense, Haig gained the reputation as a diligent and efficient administrator, well schooled in the political and diplomatic aspects of military affairs. His dedication to his job has been a trait often noted by all who worked with him, from the President on down. It is not at all uncommon for the General to work a fifteen hour day, seven days a week.

During the Vietnam conflict, General

Haig served with the 1st Infantry Division, U.S. Army, initially as the G-3 and later as the commander of the 1st Battalion, 26th Infantry. While in command of the 26th Infantry, the General was awarded the Distinguished Service Cross for his actions during the battle of Ap Gu. He then assumed command of the Division's Second Brigade, while only a lieutenant colonel.

While serving as assistant to Henry Kissinger, General Haig demonstrated again his abilities as an able administrator, and was particularly noted for his keen mind and his ability to get along with people. Soon after Haig joined Kissinger's staff, Dr. Kissinger remarked to the General that the office was not properly coordinated; when Kissinger returned from a trip to Europe a week later, the office was coordinated. In every position in which he has served, General Alexander Haig has quickly been noted as a most effective organizer and a superefficient manager. He is the expediter who always gets the job done right. President Nixon is only one of many men who have been impressed with General Haig's quick and perceptive grasp of any matter, his administrative skill, and his capacity for hard work. The President once remarked that when the lights burn late in the building, it was usually Haig who was working. Haig, in turn, knows what his job is, and he does it. He has briefed the President for years, managed the White House Staff, and governed accessibility to the President, and he is quoted as saying, "I know what the President expects of me. I think I do all right."

When he has leisure time, which is very seldom, "Al" Haig enjoys golf, tennis, and squash. He is also a dedicated family man, but the time he can devote to his wife and children is precious little while running the complex staff of the White House. Typical of General Haig's superior competence is the brief task he took on in January of 1972, when he went to China to head the advance party in preparation for President Nixon's February visit. In just four short days the General led his group through the multitude of problems which the visit caused. In that short span of time Haig resolved problems relating to a presidential visit to the cities of Peking, Shanghai, and Hangchow; accommodations, transportation, sightseeing, security, press coverage, and television relays back to the United States. General Haig participated in secret talks in Paris and Saigon relative to the negotiated withdrawal of U.S. forces from Vietnam, and he made twelve different trips to Southeast Asia as the President's personal representative.

Called by one high government official "one of the outstanding military men I've met," and by another "the ultimate professional, dedicated solely to doing the job and doing it right," General Alexander Haig is soft-spoken, tall and blue-eyed, with graying brown hair. He looks and acts more like a diplomat than a soldier, but he has earned, in addition to the Distinguished Service Cross, the Silver Star, the Legion of Merit, and the Bronze Star with combat "V", plus numerous other decorations. Noteworthy is his rise from lieutenant colonel to full general in just five years. A superlative administrator who appears to be all knowledgeable, a skilled leader who seems to have a magic touch with other people, General Alexander Haig can truly be called a man who daily practices all the concepts of leadership.

CHAPTER 4

# SEEK SELF-IMPROVEMENT

Norman Vincent Peale, note author and minister of a New York City church, made a New Year's resolution in an effort toward self-improvement. He resolved to work on his problem until it was solved. The effort he made and the achievement of his goal changed his life.

In this chapter, all the needs for, and methods of, self-improvement cannot be adequately presented. However, the need for self-improvement is strongly emphasized, and some methods you can immediately practice are presented.

## *BEGIN A PROGRAM OF POSITIVE ACTION*

Mr. Peale's book, *The Power of Positive Thinking,* is devoted to a program of positive action in which you can experience an amazing self-improvement. Then, it was just a natural reaction when Mr. Peale recognized an area that needed self-improvement—he resolved to begin a program of positive action to correct this flaw. Mr. Peale's problem, as he saw it, was that he was a procrastinator—a chronic putter-offer. He postponed or deferred taking action on small, large, routine or unusual problems.

A technique or program of positive action such as the one developed by Mr. Peale to conquer his personality problems can be of value to all of us. Not only will such a program assist us to solve a procrastination problem, but it will demonstrate how effective a positive self-improvement course of action can be. You can develop your own program of positive action as many others have done. Start today!

## *STOP BEING A PROCRASTINATOR*

**A Harmful Habit.** First, procrastination is a harmful or bad habit which can thwart your achievements and ambitions; it must be recognized and regarded as such. Your happiness and life can be destroyed by procrastination!

**Set Priorities.** Develop the habit of setting priorities in your studies, your work, and your efforts of self-improvement. Regardless of one's talent, an individual can be totally effective only by tackling one task at a time. A decision must be made on the most essential task and a list of the priorities of effort must be formed. No two tasks are of equal importance. A student with five homework assignments may be overwhelmed if he thinks of all subject requirements at once; however, it becomes an achieveable task when he concentrates on each subject one at a time in a sequence of priority.

Benjamin Franklin developed a simple method of attacking one task of self-improvement at a time. Franklin believed himself to be of ordinary ability, so he chose thirteen subject areas for self-improvement. Each week he would work on only one of these subject areas. Franklin stated he owed all his success and happiness to this one method.

**Be a Finisher.** Athletic coaches insist that a runner must finish his race and that a batter must complete the run to

first base. The demand of finishing the job is even more important in our everyday lives. It's astonishing how much time and energy is wasted because one job is not finished before others are started. Distractions creep in, you feel defeated, or interest is lost; therefore, the task is not finished. An individual with several pieces of unfinished business before him wastes a lot of time deciding where to start and trying to motivate himself, even to start at all.

Don't let small, insignificant, unfinished jobs haunt you. Make yourself stick with the job until it's finished. Once the mind accepts this discipline, the needed power of concentration will continue to flow.

**Set Deadlines.** It is essential for personal, school, or business achievement to set deadlines. Deadlines might be established as interim steps in accomplishing a goal, or each may be a goal within itself. Once a deadline is set, make it known to everyone and complete the job to meet the deadline. Don't ignore any deadline; missed deadlines add up to unfinished work and destroys your confidence, and others' confidence in you.

**Tackle the Tougher Problems.** It is only human to dodge the tougher problems, but this can lead to greater difficulties. It is easy to put off the tough or distasteful jobs and spend our time on insignificant tasks or on things we enjoy more. Eventually, this will require an exhausting and frantic effort to catch up, if it is not too late to recapture the lost opportunity.

Dana R. Hart, a former college basketball coach, a former president of business colleges, and presently executive secretary of the Association of Independent Colleges and Schools, began a plan to tackle the tougher problems early in his career. Each morning upon arrival at his office, he immediately performed all of his most unpleasant and difficult tasks; then, he could enjoy the rest of his day and have time to be productive or creative.

**Be Known as a Doer.** Don't doubt your abilities, or worry about the absolute perfection of your work. Do your best within your ability, and without hesitation. Work at the above techniques of conquering procrasination until you arrive at a basic change in your attitude. The knowledge of your achievements will be your reward!

Major General C. D. Mize, former Commander of Marine Corps Base, Quantico, Va., had a special group of individuals whom he called his "doers". These were people who did their job, and then volunteered or performed additional chores that needed to be done. Look around, and you'll find the doers. They are the really happy people who have conquered procrastination and who find satisfaction in doing the job that needs to be done.

## DEVELOP LEARNING HABITS

As a student you may have had the experience of studying an assignment, thoroughly you thought, only to draw a complete blank when your teacher asked you a question on its content. To be sure, the reason for your failure was that you hadn't studied properly. You mistook rereading for learning.

Though we often study with the short-range view of learning an assignment, underlying this limited intention is the broader one of learning something new to our way of life. We want to learn how the changes forever constant in our civilization affect us. We study to learn how to get the most out of the tasks necessary to our happiness and well being.

This study often continues after formal education has been completed. And self-study can be carried out objec-

tively or haphazardly. When a person studies objectively, he can gain a great deal from his study.

## *PLANNING FOR STUDY*

Many schools have not emphasized training in study techniques. Some few, however, have conducted experiments in this area and obtained remarkable results. The results have shown that the people trained in effective study techniques are more efficient than those who have not been trained.

Many students go through school without ever learning the essentials of effective study. As a result, they use random procedures, for no one naturally forms the best habits of study. Not only that, but poorly formed habits are very hard to break. And if we try to break away from a routine and keep up with a course of study while doing so, correcting bad habits becomes even more difficult.

The best approach, as usual, is the positive one. The *practice* of useful habits and not the *learning of rules* is the key to effective study. Forming useful habits while breaking away from ineffective ones requires persistence. It also requires planning the program of work in advance.

In planning an effective study program we must first consider "time." What do we do with our time? Most of us like the excuse, "I just didn't have time to do this." When we try thus to excuse ourselves for an unfinished job we usually lack the courage to face the facts. Often what the unrelenting clock says we are doing with our time is not pleasant. We don't like to think that we are wasting time.

Large chunks of time vanish because we don't get started. We play around so long that desires never become realities. Usually, we waste time because we dread to start on something with obstacles in the way. This dread may, in reality, be a fear of failure. Even though we don't like to face the facts, we must be realistic about obstacles that can be overcome. For when we have overcome these barriers we feel a deep satisfaction. And so, to keep from wasting time, don't put off these jobs that should come first. Activities must be so planned that we will have a fair chance of completing what we set out to do. Once that goal is reached, we enjoy increased freedom, skill, and emotional satisfaction.

A planned program for study sets forth objectives, methods, and time. Many of us who know what we want to do and how to do it are victims of trivial distractions. If conditions prevent us from doing our best work, then we should modify our plan. No plan should be so rigid as to force us to become its slave. It should remain flexible enough to permit changes.

It might be well to stress this fact—no technique of study is an end in itself; techniques are a means for helping those that need help. Don't budget your time unless you feel the need to overcome a difficulty or to add to your storehouse of skills.

If you are already distributing your time prudently among your studies and your other activities, it would be foolish to disrupt a smooth-working schedule. But if you are not satisfied with the results of your study, you may find the following suggestion helpful.

First, you must know what part of each day is left for study after other work is done. A general idea of how, when, and where your time is spent is too uncertain. You should post a schedule of your activities in a prominent place to remind you when to study. This schedule should be flexible. It need not tell you exactly how to spend your time. You can change your program whenever it is necessary to meet special demands.

*TIME FOR STUDY*

You should study at the same time every day. Such a routine prevents you from letting the time slip away. Furthermore, you aviod scheduling anything else that will conflict with the study. Thus you will use your time more wisely.

The length of the study period is important. If the plan for study has the day divided into short periods, many important tasks will not be completed in the allotted time. Your mind doesn't function at high speed during the early phases of study. It takes time for it to warm up to the subject. Moreover, by quitting soon after we start, we fail to use our mental resources to the maximum. Most of us have trouble in discarding the memories of previous experiences. To make a clean break from the distracting influences around us requires time. We don't shed the thoughts of past incidents or keep new thoughts from coming into our mind until we have had time to lose ourselves in the new task. This new task will dominate until it in turn is pushed aside by something of greater importance. This shift is not likely so long as we are solving a problem. If we are to do our best work, we should therefore have longer periods for intensive study. On the other hand, we can make the study period excessively long, thereby inducing fatigue. When a person is so tired that his work output diminishes, he should stop to rest.

Short periods of study, however, can be used advantageously. Use those odd moments that are often wasted. Carry notes on a piece of paper or a small card that you can pull out of your pocket while waiting for a bus. You can either refer to this card or take notes on it as ideas occur to you. New ideas don't appear when they are needed most. They appear at the most unexpected times. A routine experience may cause you to think of something useful—better jot it down. Unless you do, it will be lost again when you need it most.

Some students, in addition, use short periods of time before class to review information from preceding classes. Rapid scanning of the text material to see relationships can also be useful.

*THE STUDY ENVIRONMENT*

The study environment should be free from distractions. Even in routine mechanical jobs, where little mental concentration is required, reducing noise increases the efficiency of the workers. In work requiring mental concentration quiet surroundings are even more important. So when you plan your study time try hard to find hours when noise is at a minimum. Pick a good place, too, that is free of distractions. Sometimes finding a time and place to study poses quite a problem. Unless you have your own room or a private place to study, it will be hard to find the ideal place to study. But you can do much to reduce the distractions and interruptions while you work. No matter haw bad the situation is, you *can* improve it.

Certainly you can eliminate the distractions that you create yourself. While you don't think of it in that way, an uncomfortable reading position is really a distraction. You may not be aware of the distress signals that your cramped muscles are sending out to the mind, but they reduce your efficiency. Poor lighting has a similar effect because it makes reading difficult.

The ideal situation for study is a place where your materials are in readiness, lighting facilities are good, and the ventilation of the room is adequate. When you are uncomfortable, you find it hard to concentrate. You can be too comfortable, though; then you are likely to become drowsy and your mind doesn't function at high speed; usually a

straight-backed chair is better than a reclining one.

### *THE INFLUENCE OF MENTAL AND PHYSICAL CONDITIONS ON STUDY*

In discussing the study environment, we must take into account physical and mental conditions that decrease productivity. Desirable mental and physical habits include plenty of sleep, proper diet, recreation and rest periods, and freedom from emotional upset.

To remain in top physical condition, you need regular hours of sleep. The amount of sleep necessary varies with the individual. The amount of sleep should be enough to overcome any feeling of fatigue. Generally speaking, most students need eight hours of uninterrupted sleep. Unless we sleep regularly, periods of tossing, restlessness, and tension will leave us in a poor condition for concentrated study. A comfortable bed, a cool, well-ventilated room, quiet, and darkness obviously contribute to good sleep.

The right diet likewise makes a person feel ready to study. The pangs of hunger or the drowsiness caused by overeating can create as much of a distraction as a TV set in the next room. To be mentally alert for study or concentration, a person should eat light, easily digested foods. Many students eat a heavy meal and then attempt to study, only to find studying to be impossible because of sleepiness and an inability to concentrate.

We have already noted that if you study too long at a time, you become fatigued and inefficient. To stay efficient, you should take short rest periods. Just close your eyes and relax the body for a very short time. As you rest, change the position of your body. Get up and walk around, get some fresh air, stretch the limbs, or get a drink of water. These rest periods are not so necessary in the early periods of study as they are after study has continued for a long period of time. Make them short or you will have trouble adjusting to the study situation when you start again.

Try to shed any emotional stress during study. If you have studied systematically during the term, you should have little to fear when approaching an examination. But if a person neglects his studies until exam time, he may have emotional tensions that will handicap his thinking and keep him from applying what he does know. Worry, whether related to study or not, reduces a person's efficiency.

In short, proper habits promote good mental and physical conditions, and these in turn make for efficiency and general well being. Each person should form regular hours for sleep, get the proper amount of exercise, select the proper diet, and stay free of emotional disturbances.

### *METHODS OF STUDY*

If we intend for our procedures to be orderly when we sit down to study, we must know what we are to do and how we are going to do it. The difficulty of the material governs both the "what" and the "how". Many subjects require a thorough, patient analysis, but you can gain a quick overview of the material by scanning rapidly through the material before making this thorough study. To scan the material, you glance rapidly down the page, not reading word by word, but picking out a sentence here and there to get an idea of the content and the author's approach.

Many people assume that all they have to do to acquire information is to read the assignment. This assumption is not true. We study for only one reason—to learn. We do not learn by absorption, but rather must apply the principles of learning for reading to be effective. In fact, you can read an assigment without ever knowing what it

is about. This possibility becomes a reality when we read with the limited objective of merely covering the assignment. To be effective, studying must be directed toward a certain learning outcome.

Many students, when they are ready to study, begin by asking themselves, what is this assignment about? This approach is good: raise questions concerning the assignment; then look for the answers.

Several clues are usually available to help you discover the content of an assignment. Most books, for example, carry a preface. The preface will include a brief explanation by the author of the purpose of the book. A table of contents lists the chapter headings. Each chapter in turn is broken down into topics and paragraphs, and some authors list the topics at the beginning of each chapter. Or the opening paragraph of a chapter may preview the chapter. Similarly, the first sentence of a paragraph often states the central idea of the paragraph. Significant words may be italicized or set in boldface type. If the last paragraph in the chapter repeats pertinent information from the chapter, it is called a *summary*. If you will first read the summary at the end of a chapter, you will find that the chapter itself becomes more meaningful.

A *glossary* of terms at the end of a book defines briefly the terms used in the book. This glossary enables you to check quickly your understanding of these terms, or you can use it for quick review.

Sometimes a person will not be interested in reading an entire book. When he is interested in only one phase of a subject, he can easily refer to the alphabetical index in the back of the book. Looking up key words in the subject you have an interest in can lead you to specific pages concerning the topic.

When you are making an intensive study of a subject, you should get information from more than one source. Most authors are not entirely original in their treatments of subjects, gathering material from many different sources. These sources are given in a bibliography, either at the end of the chapters or at the end of the book. Therefore, if you are interested in what other authors have said, you should try to get these books from a good library.

The art of note taking is another valuable aid to study. It is good practice to make an outline that will show relationships between the ideas. Outlines may have several forms, but the form is less important than getting on paper pertinent data in an organized manner.

In taking notes during a lecture or class, we are faced with the problem of making notes detailed enough to be organized into a meaningful whole later. Of course, the optimistic student may not take any notes and depend on his memory to reconstruct the lecture. This approach, however, is always faulty, for our memories are not that good. We must learn to select the points stressed by the lecturer and outline them for later filling in. If the lecturer has his content organized properly, he can be followed easily. Or he may list his main points on the chalkboard. But in any case, you must be selective as you take notes. Also pay close attention or you will miss valuable information. By summarizing key ideas, you can be very brief and yet have notes that you can organize later. Organizing notes is valuable because it helps fix relationships in your mind.

Of course, the lecture is but one source of knowledge. If you have a topic to study in a textbook, begin by observing the title. Rephrase the title into an appropriate question. If the title is "Techniques for Study," make it read, "What are the techniques for study?" Glance quickly through the reading

material to find the answers. Concentrate on these answers. Outline the topic; then use it for making a written summary. Next summarize the material orally without referring to your notes or to the book. Recheck to see that it is correctly stated. After sudying each topic, tie the entire assignment together.

Another common method of study is to underline major principles within the textbook itself, that is, make the textbook into a notebook. A numbering system improves this method. For example, a Roman numeral in the margin may indicate one of the major principles that you wanted to remember, and the subdivisions can be marked by Arabic numerals. Marginal notations can be used to call your attention to certain statements. By carefully underlining the major principles and connecting them by penciled lines to supporting statements, you can review the textbook rather quickly.

Takers of voluminous notes from a textbook sometimes erroneously think that they have extracted useful information from the texbook, when actually their sheaves of notes are meaningless out of the original context. An outline underscored in the textbook is surely preferable to information in a vacuum. Making an outline by underscoring is also preferable to the common practice of underlining nearly every sentence. This excessive underlining only makes the second reading more difficult. Actually the first reading should be exploratory. The real outlining of the topic or section should come after a complete analysis has focused on significant parts.

One final word of advice as to notes and underlining of texts. The text should belong to you. Your own marginal notes and underlining will probably not be understood by someone else. In fact, it might be a handicap for him to use a marked-up book. Don't mark up books that don't belong to you and must be used by others later.

## IMPROVE YOUR READING SKILL

Everybody reads. Most people read because they enjoy it; they like to read stories, writeups of sports events, gossip columns, and comics. Others, interested in world events, read their newspapers for information. Local news stories are read closely by most of us. Then too, a certain amount of reading is necessary to get the world's work done. Mechanics, clerks, supervisors, business men—they must all read books, regulations, pamphlets, or blueprints to keep up to date.

Millions of people each day thus read millions of lines of print. But there is a vast amount of difference between rate of reading and the depth of understanding. The reading speeds of different people vary from a halting 90 to 100 words per minute to a supersonic rate of 1,000 or more. Our ability to understand likewise ranges from almost a complete failure with simple material to a thorough grasp of complex material. Although these differences are largely due to differences in native ability and education, reading habits also influence both speed and comprehension. Their influence is so big, in fact, that a relatively short period of coaching will increase the average person's reading speed 50 percent or more without reducing his understanding.

The ability to read well is much more important today than it has ever been in the history of our country. This is an era of mass communications and technical know-how. Regardless of the cause, we are expected to know more than ever before about the things that affect our daily life and work. To be accepted as an equal in our social group, we must be able to work with other people. We must be able to discuss daily events intelligently. This means that

we must be able to read and comprehend information quickly, no matter through which medium it comes to us.

If you stop for a moment to check your ability to read, you will know how much of this chapter applies to you. If you are a rapid reader with a right rate of comprehension, you do not need to study this course so intensively. You will have to find out your particular weaknesses and use the suggestions and exercises that will do the most for you.

This suggestion does not mean that you should ignore all our advice. Unless you are perfect (and who is), we believe we can help you. The point is, you should concentrate on you weaknesses. The checklist presented in the following section will enable you to find your weaknesses.

## *A READING CHECKLIST*

A checklist organizes your analysis for you. The following checklist includes the most significant items. One piece of advice on the first group of items. Before analyzing your eye movements, have a friend set up a mirror so that he watch your eyes as you read a page of printed material. You can answer all of the other questions by yourself.

**Eye Movement**

Do you make five or more stops on an ordinary line of print?
Do you make frequent regressions (go back to read part of a line over?)
Do your eyes glide quickly across the line and from line to line?

**Vocalization**

Do you move your lips as you read?
Do you move your throat and vocal cords when you read?
Do you hear the words in your mind as you read?

**Vocabulary**

Do you often run across words you don't understand?
Do you often look them up in your dictionary?
Do you avoid or put aside articles and books that contain many words you don't understand?

**Comprehension**

Can you absorb the contents of a sentence almost at a glance?
Can you understand and remember the contents of a passage after you've only read it once?
Do you have to reread a page several times to get the full meaning?
Do you try to separate the important thoughts from the less important ones?
Do you summarize mentally while you read?
Can you read the average textbook with complete understanding?

**Reading Habits**

Are you careful about having good lighting when you read?
Do you read with the radio on?
Do you pay attention to having a comfortable position when you read?
Do you intentionally increase or decrease your speed for different kinds of material?
Do you find your thoughts continually wandering from the subject?
Can you pay full attention to your reading for an hour or more at a stretch?

If the above checklist reveals that you have some reading faults, you need to find out their cause.

*CAUSES OF POOR READING*

In discussing the causes of poor reading, we shall try to tell you how to improve your reading, for naming causes without telling you how to eliminate them would be futile. Sometimes a cause, in fact, may have been operating against a person since childhood.

Studies have shown, for example, that children's reading difficulties may often stem from poor vision. In many cases the parents were aware that the child was having eye troubles, but feeling that glasses detract from appearance, they did not take the child to an oculist. As a result, many children have suffered from eyestrain and fatigue. Eventually such a child was handicapped, becoming unable to keep up his studies with the other children in his age group because of poor reading habits. When a teacher finds a child with poor vision, she should tell the parents. When corrections are made in time, children's reading usually improves remarkably.

Another cause of poor reading is vocalization, the physical movement that accompanies reading. In extreme cases the person moves his lips as he pronounces each word. Less extreme movements cause a tired feeling in the throat after prolonged reading periods. The speed of reading is governed to a great extent by this tendency to vocalize words. Very few of us read so poorly that we move our lips; more of us do say the words to ourselves as we read them. Not out loud, of course, but we think the words, and as we do, our voice apparatus works accordingly. At the highest level of vocalization, there is internal hearing. Although you make no physical reaction of lips or throat, you hear the words in your mind. At any level of vocalization, inward speech retards your reading speed.

To be sure, not all printed matter can be read at supersonic speeds. As Francis Bacon wrote some 300 years ago, "Some books are to be tasted, others to be swallowed, and some to be chewed and digested." Therefore, it does not matter how good your eye rhythm, vocabulary, and eye span are and how free from inner speech your reading becomes, you'll never be able to read a technical order or a regulation at supersonic speed and get what you want out of it. Different materials have to be read at different speeds. In reading, the eyes usually keep five or six words ahead of the oral word. Punctuation marks are guides that enable the eyes to recognize a word group. Punctuation is valuable for all reading, not just for internal reading as implied by the sentence.

One important cause of poor reading to be discussed more fully later is a limited vocabulary. When unfamiliar words appear in a sentence, we usually have difficulty grasping its idea. The person with a poor vocabulary can improve it by starting to read simple material and gradually working up to more complex passages. This increased vocabulary will make your reading more effective, and you will be better able to understand orders and regulations.

Many reading difficulties derive from a lack of practice in reading. Children who don't read much in grammar and high schools often have trouble understanding technical discussions. Narrow reading interests tend to confine us to the fields we know best. For this reason, we should develop a reading vocabulary flexible enough to absorb information in many fields. Success depends on whether a person can adapt himself to new situations, one kind of which is verbal. If a person can't handle new material, he is inevitably handicapped.

*THE IMPORTANCE OF TIME*

Many people glance hurriedly at the items of importance in their newspapers as they eat their breakfast or as they sip their coffee at a lunch counter. Others can become so engrossed in their reading of an item that they hang on to the straps on a streetcar, oblivious to all about them. But most people like to sit down at the end of the day and read for pleasure and relaxation under a good light, in an easy chair, and with their feet propped up for additional comfort. Not everyone has the time for this luxury, unfortunately, for they are occupied with the routine of business. Thus our problem is to enable the busy person to use his time in the most profitable way.

What is the solution to the problem of lack of time, then? One solution is to train yourself to read so that you learn as much from 60 minutes of reading as you formerly got from 100 minutes. Tests have shown that such improvement is within the reach of most students.

*READING SPEED*

Up to this point we mentioned several factors that govern reading speed. But how can we determine what our reading speed is? Do you know how fast you read? Well, few of us do. It is important, however, for it gives you a yardstick for measuring your progress. By checking your speed at the beginning or your reading improvement program and at frequent intervals, you can tell how much you are accomplishing.

To take this test, select some reading matter that is interesting and that has a vocabulary equal to or below your ceiling of ability. A narrative two or three pages long will do.

To time yourself, get a watch or clock with a second hand. The best procedure is to write down the time indicated by the minute hand just before you start, and wait for the second hand to reach 60, and then start reading. For example, if your watch is at 13 minutes and 20 seconds after the hour, just write down "14" and wait for the second hand to reach 60 before starting to read. When you are through, look at the time again. Suppose it's 15 minutes and 27 seconds past; you took 1 minute and 27 seconds to read the passage. Of course you will have to count the number of words in the selection and divide this number by the time to measure your speed.

A reading speed of 500 words a minute or better is considered good; 300 words a minute is slow; and 200 words a minute indicates a serious reading problem that needs special attention.

*READING ESSENTIALS*

To most people, the ability to read well is a mystery. They know how to read but do not understand the mechanics of reading. As a result, they waste motions in the process, and their reading speed is far below their capacity. Good reading depends upon rhythm, eye span, and vocabulary.

**Rhythm.** Any activity involving movement requires rhythm. Without rhythm a person would never make a good dancer. Rhythm is required in typing. The typist must have a smooth flow of motion to become both fast and accurate. Smooth timing is the secret of rhythm. We can have slow rhythm or fast rhythm. A person may walk rhythmically but slowly, or he can run rhythmically. This pacing of the action is called tempo.

Tempo varies as you read. When you read a line of print, your eyes do not glide steadily along the line. They move in series of steps. Movies taken of your eyes as you read a line of print show

that your eyes stop at one point, jump to another point, stop at the second point, jump to another point, stop, jump, and so on to the end of the line. You can see this for yourself by placing a mirror where you can observe another person's eyes as he reads.

If you watch the eyes closely while a person reads, or better still, if you can get a good movie of the average person's eyes as he reads, you'll find that the stops and jumps are quite irregular. Some stops last longer than others and some jumps cover more ground than others. In other words, the average person keeps on changing his stride in irregular fashion. He doesn't have rhythm. In fact, you'll find some people have an acute case of jerkiness. Very often, in the middle of a line, the jumps will reverse direction several times. The eyes will take several forward steps, a backward step, then forward again. If a runner tried using this same technique, he would never win a race. The same thing applies to reading.

Although good eye rhythm will help you increase your reading speed, it is only one of the steps along the road toward achieving the greatest reading efficiency. Don't forget tempo, mentioned earlier. Your movements may be rhythmic, but perhaps you're only walking rhythmically. You'll move faster if you run rhythmically. In reading, too, you can change from a walk to a run. The important target in learning is to take bigger steps.

**Eye Span.** As you know, when you read, your eyes stop, jump, stop, jump, and so on. Each stop is called a *fixation* because your eyes remain fixed upon what they see until you can take it in. Then they jump to the next stop or fixation. If a jump is in the wrong direction, it is called a *regression.*

The number of fixations your eyes make per line and the distance they jump each time depend on how much you can grasp in one fixation. If your eyes can take in only 4 letters in a single fixation, you might have to make 20 fixations on a line of print. However, if you can take in about 20 letters in a single fixation, your eyes can make bigger jumps and fewer fixations. You might require only 4 fixations for a long line of print. Clearly, then, the more your eyes grasp in a single fixation, the faster you'll be able to read. Thus good reading speed requires not only moving rhythmically from fixation to fixation but also taking in a large number of letters in each fixation. The amount your eyes can grasp in a single fixation is called eye span. This can also be improved with practice.

There are many exercises that will help to increase the number of letters that you can see at a glance. However, it doesn't do much good to increase your eye span unless you know what the words and letters mean.

**Vocabulary.** Suppose that after you have developed good rhythm and a broad eye span you see something like this:

Qui de contemnenda gloria libros scribunt, nomen suum inscribunt. Good eye rhythm and broad eye span don't do much good when we see something like the sentence that we have just stumbled across. Even if you could take all the letters in at a glance, and could recite all the letters in their proper order, it still wouldn't do you any good unless you understood the Latin words.

The same thing would hold true for a sentence written in English. If you know only a few words, you're likely to run into many passages that won't mean much to you. When that happens, rhythm and speed don't help. It's like a good runner trying to run over rough ground blindfolded. He is likely to do a lot of stumbling and falling, and in

spite of his potential speed may still have to crawl along.

To keep word obstacles from slowing you down to a snail's pace in your reading, you have to build your vocabulary. We all learn some new words from time to time. Perhaps you learn more than most people. Yet there is a good chance that you could learn still faster and more effectively. This can be done by building your vocabulary. When you run into a new word don't pass it over without finding out what it means. Look it up in a good dictionary. Sometimes the context suggests the meaning. You may be able to relate the new word to ideas with which you are already familiar. It is good practice to use newly learned words in your conversation or in writing. Don't wait too long to use it, for it is very easy to forget the uncommon words. Frequent usage will make them a part of your vocabulary.

With good eye rhythm, a broad eye span, and with an improving vocabulary, you will be overcoming most of the problems that hinder the average reader.

# LEE TREVINO

How does an impoverished and fatherless Chicano child grow up to become the top money winner in professional golf and one of the most popular players on the circuit? Ask Lee Trevino. He did it.

In 1968, this Mexican-American, grade school dropout and former Marine sergeant startled the golf world by coming out of nowhere to win the U.S. Open Golf Tournament. An unbelieving press tried to dismiss him as a lucky one-shot upstart. If they were right, it's been a very long one-shot. Since 1968, Lee Trevino has won more money ($1,000,000.00 plus) than any other golfer on the pro tour. He is also the first golfer in history to win the British, American and Canadian Opens all in the same year. What's more, the crowds love him and the other players agree he's one of the best things to happen to golf since the steel-shafted club.

Lee is a showman who seldom quits talking and clowning. His fans, known as "Lee's Fleas," delight in his wisecracks (Black is beautiful, but Brown is cute") and his apologies for cussing ("Excuse me, lady, I thought you was a tree").* His unbelievable self-confidence is never more obvious than when he's putting—a task that usually calls for the concentration and absolute silence of an operating room. At the 1969 World Cup Matches in Singapore, Lee faced a twenty foot putt. As he slowly drew back his putter he addressed the gallery: "With a million dollar swing like mine"—tap—"I can't miss." He didn't.

What took him to the top? He says his immense drive comes from a determination to "buy a big hunk of life for me and my kids." Lee's children mean the world and all to him; and he is equally generous with other children, often holding impromptu hot dog and soda parties for crowds of them at the tournaments. Clearly, Lee still remembers his own deprived childhood.

Fate dealt him some pretty bad cards when he was born. He never knew who his father was. He and his two sisters were raised by their mother, who sometimes managed to get work as a maid, and by their grandfather, a gravedigger who had immigrated from Mexico. Their house, with neither electricity nor plumbing, sat in the middle of a hay field on the outskirts of Dallas.

The bad hand, however, held some wild cards. That hay field bordered on the fairway of the Glen Lakes Country Club. Thus it was perfectly natural for the little boy to emulate the golfers. At six he was playing with a cutdown club on a little two hole course he'd made in his back yard. Later it seemed equally natural to collect balls and sell them, to get a job as a greenkeeper's assistant, to caddy, and to play a few holes at the end of the day. At the age of fifteen he played his first full eighteen holes—and shot a 77. He discovered his second wild card. Lee Trevino is one of those extreme rareties —a natural golfer. But Lee, with his happy-go-lucky attitude, didn't take his talent seriously. He might never

*Reader's Digest*, November 1971. Subsequent quotations are from this source.

*Lee Trevino*

have if it hadn't been for the Marine Corps.

Lee's urge to be a Marine was so strong that he lied about his age to join. Many years later he would tell his Fleas: "You can't win at golf unless you have self-control, determination and confidence. These are the things I learned in the Marine Corps." He learned them well, making sergeant in two tours, an impressive record in the small peace-time Marine Corps of the late 1950's. The Corps taught him something else, too.

One day he saw a notice announcing tryouts for the 3rd Marine Division golf team. "Shucks," he said to himself, "I know a little about that game." He qualified with a 66. On another amateur team such amazing natural ability might have been allowed to go to his head. But Lee discovered that like everything else they do, Marines take their golfing seriously. They value discipline and hard work, and they play to win. As a result of his teammates' influence, Lee started taking his own game seriously. During the next two years he was playing in tournaments in Japan, Taiwan and the Philippines, perfecting his game, learning about himself, and making his decision. He was meant to be a professional golfer. He would be one.

Lee left the security of barracks and parade fields for the risks and uncertainties of professional golf. At first the best pro job he could get was at Hardy's Pitch and Putt, but his natural showmanship and Marine-built confidence carried him through. He was soon attracting a large following of students by challenging golfers to an unusual kind of match. The golfer could use whatever club he liked; Lee would play with a Dr. Pepper bottle wrapped in adhesive tape. He says he never lost a game using that bottle. But while he was clowning he was also working hard to earn the Class A card that would enable him to play in the tournaments.

He finally met the requirements, completing the business school run by the Professional Golfing Association and four years work as a club pro. But when he asked Hardy's to verify his length of service, his employer refused. It was a bitter disappointment and blatantly unfair. Other men would have given up their dreams (as Hardy's expected Lee to do) but Lee Trevino wasn't a man to quit his dreams—he quit the job instead and began hunting the small tournaments that didn't require a card.

Again, Lee put aside what little security he had and went out to make his own breaks. The pickings were few and slim, and it seemed at the time, hardly worth scrapping for. It was a time of trial, a time when he was often hard put to keep groceries on the table. Many times he must have felt that he was back where he had started—a poor Chicano with no real hope of ever being anything else. But this poor Chicano was also a Marine sergeant, and that old Leatherneck determination was as much a part of him as the color of his eyes. As in so many other cases, it was ultimately the character of the man and not the luck of the draw that made the difference between success and failure.

Lee wasn't making much money, but he was earning a reputation. Words of his skill reached Martin Lettunich, a wealthy cotton farmer who'd been beaten one time too many by a local hotshot golfer. Lettunich invited Lee to play the hometown star in a "sociable game." He won, earned $300.00 and a chance to be a teaching pro at the Horizon Hills Country Club. He grabbed the chance and set out to hone his game. When the desert winds hit 60 miles an hour, he donned scuba-diving goggles and kept hitting. Fate tried

him one more time—and could not break him.

Horizon Hills sent him to the 1966 U.S. Open. Playing with unmatched clubs he did so badly that he refused to enter the 1967 Open. But his wife, who probably knew her husband better than he knew himself, sent in the fee and packed him off. He finished fifth, won $6,000.00, and was named Rookie of the Year. Lee Trevino was on his way. Since then he has become one of the all-time money winners. He has won many P.G.A. tournaments, two British Opens, two U.S. Opens, and is certainly destined to win a great many more.

Lee Trevino is a man who went up against enormous odds to win and win big. He did it with a combination of God-given talent and the hard-earned traits of self-control, determination and confidence. You can see the results on the televised tournaments. Watch his skill, his exuberance, his delight in life; and listen to what he says: "You only go around once in life"—thwack—"and you gotta smell the roses as you go by."

CHAPTER 5

# SMALL GROUP LEADERSHIP

We think of the leader as the man with the answers, the one who keeps his men informed. Of course, to get the answers he has to ask the questions. A good leader is continually checking with his seniors, his subordinates and his peers. He is constantly gathering the pieces of information and the opinions which he uses in making his decisions. Moreover, he is always looking for situations where he can most effectively ask the questions he needs to ask and discuss the matters which need considering. Some of the situations he can use are spontaneous and informal, others are very formal and must be prepared for well in advance. In this chapter, some of the techniques leaders use to obtain the necessary information in decision making is presented. The styles of the leaders may vary, but these techniques, in some form, are used by all.

## *INFORMAL GROUPS*

Any comfortable time and place is a good time and place to talk. Sometimes it is best to wait until you can talk to a particular person in private, especially when you want to know why he is not performing as well as he should, or when, for any other reason, the subject needs to be kept confidential. On other occasions it is better to get together with the two or three people who have the most to contribute and thrash things out. Generally, the smaller the group the easier it is to control the subject and the better the chance that everyone there will have his full say. Very frequently, the spontaneous discussion, held right at the moment when the people involved are excited about the subject, will pay off much better than a formal meeting delayed until some later time. In fact, the longer you delay a discussion the less chance there is that your men will still be interested in it or, far more dangerous, the better the chance that someone will have brooded on the thing until he has grown bitter and can no longer talk rationally. Always try to get things out in the open as soon as you can!

You can hold your informal meetings wherever and whenever you feel the need; and you can conduct them in whatever manner is most comfortable for you—and your men! Remember that people will tell you more and tell it better if they are relaxed and comfortable and sure they have your attention. Remember too that some people like to think something out before they talk about it, and they will tell you more if they have a chance to prepare. Others feel uncomfortable at a formal "appointment." They talk better when they can catch you "off duty" and casually bring up the subject they want to discuss. For these reasons, it is usually a good idea to have certain regularly scheduled times and places where you can generally be found and where your subordinates can count on your being in a mood to listen.

You will want to develop as many channels of communication within your group as you can, and you will want to use them all. If something comes up,

you will want to know about it immediately. And if something needs clarifying, you will want to be able to set it straight before too much time passes and the rumors have a chance to get started. Finally, you want your men to be constantly reassured that their problems and ideas are important to you and that they have a voice in the group.

## *CONFERENCE GROUPS*

No matter how well you use your informal techniques, however, there will come a time when the only way that you can get the full benefit of your group's expertise is by calling a conference. These can be especially useful in the early stages of planning, or when the evidence is confusing and there are strong differences of opinion within the group. Much good can come of a productive conference, but it will only be productive if the leader has properly prepared for it and if he understands that once the meeting begins his leadership role changes.

You, in your role as conference leader, will not be the decisionmaker, but the moderator; not the commander, but the chairman. Your job will not be to impose a solution but to help your group arrive at one. Although you will furnish all the insights and information you have, you will need to remember that you are not there to answer questions but to ask them; not to give opinions but to seek them; not to talk but to listen. Your primary job will be to see to it that the discussion stays on the right track, that everyone contributes his best thinking, and that no one person or viewpoint is allowed to dominate.

The job is a difficult one. It requires great tact and a considerable knowledge of human nature. But it is well worth learning, for you will have many opportunities to use it. Let us examine the skills you will need to develop in order to prepare for and conduct a productive group conference. Then we will look at a technique called brainstorming which you can use to help your group get the most from its collective imagination.

A meeting which is convened in order to find a solution to a problem which faces a unit is generally referred to as a conference. As a leader, you will probable have frequent cause to call conferences with your men, and you will certainly be required to attend many conferences with your associates and seniors. Since this is so, it will be worth our while to examine the characteristics of the conference and to analyze your position and responsibilities as a conference leader.

As we have already stated, a conference is a meeting at which an attempt is made to find a solution to a problem facing the unit. The conference is always a *planned* meeting, frequently of a small number of men assembled in "roundtable" fashion, where a solution is sought by means of introducing and adjusting differences of opinion. The conference may be held in a formal manner, or informally, depending upon the tastes and personalities of the participants as well as their number. But it always planned for in advance, and it always consists of an exchange of views and opinions. A one-way gathering, wherein the leader assembles his men and then does all the talking himself, may be called a staff meeting, or briefing session, but it is not a conference.

The degree to which a man possesses the qualities of good leadership will become very evident when he assumes the leadership of a conference. It is in such a situation that the leader must exercise all his knowledge, judgment, tact, and ability to get along with other men. The success or failure of the conference will depend largely upon the leader's ability to apply these qualities.

## *CHARACTERISTICS OF THE CONFERENCE PROBLEM*

As we intimated in our introductory remarks, not every problem which arises warrants convening a conference. A conference problem must be such that its solution demands collective thought and action. This may be due to its importance to your men or to the difficulty of the problem itself; but whatever the cause, the conference problem requires the exchange and adjustment of numerous opinions. Some problems will require a conference because there may be varied interest groups (political, religious, etc.) which desire to assure a solution favorable to their group. When such a case arises, the conference itself may get to be a highly complex affair requiring extra careful handling, tact, and sound judgment on the part of the conference leader.

Another characteristic of the conference problem, and one which follows almost directly from the first, is that the problem must be such that those chosen as conferees are especially qualified to give their opinions and pass judgment on the problem at hand. Their qualifications may be due to their having particular knowledge of matters with which the problem is concerned—that is, the conferees may be "authorities" or "experts" on the subject to which the problem relates. This is not always the case, however. Sometimes, when there is no one available with special knowledge of the problem, conferees are chosen for their personal attributes of general knowledge, judgment, and broad experience.

Still another characteristic of the conference problem is that it must present a challenge to the conference group. That is, it cannot be simply a matter of the leader collecting opinions from various men, considering them in his own good time, and choosing the solution from among them at his own discretion. The very concept of the conference, as we have already noted, implies an active exchange of varying opinions and an ever-increasing adjustment of these differences until a workable solution to the problem is agreed upon.

Finally, the problem presented to the conference for discussion must be of such a nature that the group can, with sufficient discussion and effort, find an acceptable, practical solution. To insure this, it is necessary to exercise caution in the choice of words which the problem is presented. It is a futile, lamentable waste of time to spend hours wrangling over a seemingly important matter only to discover suddenly that the disagreeing parties were not really talking about the same things. The subject of discussion must be carefully defined and reduced to its simplest terms so that all the conferees can be absolutely certain of what is being discussed and what solutions are possible.

## *THE CONFERENCE LEADER AND HIS RESPONSIBILITIES*

As in most other activities, the success or failure of the conference will depend to a great extent upon the leader: the way he deports himself and how methodically he goes about preparing for and carrying out the conference procedures.

**Traits of the conference leader.** To be a good conference leader you must have, of course, the very same traits required of a good leader in general. However, certain qualities of the individual come to the fore more in a conference situation than in most others, and it is these particular traits upon which we shall dwell briefly.

*Sociability* is most important to the conference leader. He must actually enjoy working with other people toward a

common goal. If he is accustomed only to thinking and deciding alone, the leader will find it difficult to adjust his own opinions and attitudes to those of the other conferees. In short, a spirit of cooperation must pervade the conference room, and this spirit should emanate primarily from the leader.

For the sake of clarity of presentation and discussion, it is highly desirable that the leader have an *excellent command of language*. He should be able to speak clearly and decisively and to choose the proper words to express his own thoughts and clarify the thoughts of others.

Good *judgment*, the ability to think clearly and rapidly, is indispensable to the conference leader. Since he must guide the progress of the discussion and keep a constant check to insure that the subject or problem is never lost sight of, he must be able to cope rapidly and logically with all the ideas being brought forth by the conferees.

Finally, the leader must exercise the personal qualities of *self-restraint*, *tact*, and *amiability*. In the heat of discussion and disagreement, before a solution is reached, feelings are sometimes hurt. By using tact and flashes of humor and by controlling any tendency he himself may have to lose his temper, the leader can do a great deal toward soothing ruffled feelings, avoiding embarrassing situations, and in general keeping the conference going at a smooth, efficient pace.

**Responsibilities of the conference leader.** In defining the conference during our introductory remarks, we made a point of emphasizing that it is a *planned* meeting, not an impromptu get-together. And, as usual, the burden of the planning and coordinating devolves upon you, the conference leader. Before a conference can proceed with efficiency toward its goal, the joint finding of an acceptable solution to a given problem, certain preparatory steps must be taken.

First of all, you must think the problem through as carefully as you can. You must get a firm grasp on the essentials of the problem and be able to reduce it to its simplest terms for presentation to the group.

Then you must make certain information available to the group so that they will come to the conference with ideas about the problem and be prepared to tackle it as quickly as possible. This preparatory information may take the form of a verbal briefing before the conference actually begins, or it may be in the form of a written handout. Whatever form it takes, the information should contain a statement of the problem itself, any definitions of terms that may be necessary, all available data on the problem, some standard of judgment for the solution which is being sought, and a proposed order of discussion known as the *agenda*.

Once you have made all the preparatory information available to the conferees, you should proceed to think of possible questions which you can put to them. Remember, it is your job to keep the discussion going at a lively pace and maintain the interest of the group. One of the most effective ways to accomplish this is by means of questions which will provoke thought, stimulate interest, and develop the ramifications of the subject to the fullest extent.

Last, but certainly not least in importance among your preparatory responsibilities, is the necessity to insure that adequate facilities are made available for the conference. If the conference is sure to be a brief one, then probably you will only have to arrange for a suitable conference room. If it promises to become a lengthy affair, however, you may have to arrange facilities for food, relaxation, and even shelter for the conferees.

The conferees themselves have certain responsibilities, of course. It is their duty to come to the conference prepared to apply themselves with the greatest diligence toward achieving the conference goal. But it is your job as leader to tie all loose ends together, keep the conference going at an efficient pace, and give everyone a chance to be heard.

## *IN-CONFERENCE ACTIVITIES*

When you feel that all the preparatory steps have been completed, and all is in readiness, the conference begins. But your job does not by any means end there. You must also perform certain in-conference duties which will insure that the meeting will proceed according to schedule and accomplish its mission.

The first step is to brief the conferees. Whether or not you have given them a written statement of the problem and related information, you should carry out a thorough briefing. This briefing should serve a number of functions: it should serve to introduce the participants to cooperative attitude among the group, arouse their interest, and encourage their active participation; and it should serve as the point of departure for discussion, the point at which you can state or restate the problem to the conferees.

If the group is large enough, and the subject of discussion broad enough to warrant it, you may want to subdivide the group into committees which can investigate various aspects of the problem and then come together as a body again to state findings and exchange opinions on proposed solutions.

During the discussion it is your duty to see to it that the accepted agenda is adhered to—not strictly and at all times, but flexibly so that the direction of the conference is never out of sight. At the same time, you must see to it that all the subtopics which are relevant to the discussion are adequately covered and not lost sight of.

By exercising the qualities of which we spoke—tact, judgment, and a clear and concise use of the language—you must help to resolve whatever conflicts arise. This will require continual rephrasing of ideas and proposals. It may even require the calling of a recess when the conferees are becoming too heated in argument or just generally tired.

You must see to it that a clear, usable record is being kept of the proceedings for future reference.

Finally, as progress is made, it is your duty to summarize, from time to time, what has been accomplished up to that point and what still remains to be done.

From this rather lengthy list of all the responsibilities and duties which you, as the conference leader, must deal with, it should be clear to you that the conference depends heavily on the leader for guidance and control. It is the success or failure of the conference leader which will determine, to a large degree, the success or failure of the conference itself.

## *BRAINSTORMING*

What do you do if the conference goes flat? How can you guide a discussion, or evaluate new ideas if there are no new ideas? One good answer is to use the technique of brainstorming. This method will not solve your original problem, but it can generate new ideas which might be used to solve it; and it will certainly give your group some exciting new possibilities to consider.

Brainstorming is a group process developed by Alex Osborne as a technique to generate original and imaginative ideas. It has been used successfully by groups in all kinds of activities. This process helps us overcome some of our blocks or barriers to creativity by stimu

lating a chain reaction of spontaneous ideas. No ideas are rejected or even evaluated until after the brainstorming session is over.

We are all familiar with the way other people can stimulate us. In a bull session you have noticed how one story serves as a reminder of another. Brainstorming grew out of Osborne's theory that if a group of people concentrated together on a problem, they would stimulate one another. One idea would suggest another. Hearing the ideas of others would help each man overcome his own timidity and inertia. But this would not work unless the participants felt free to express themselves without fear of ridicule. Having the group withhold judgment frees everyone of worry about appearing ridiculous, of worry about whether the idea would work, and worry about the details of putting it into action. The evaluation and the working out of details come later.

Osborne believed that the secret of the creative process could be applied in such group sessions. He realized that when we stop to analyze each idea as we produce it, we actually stymie the production of additional ideas. Brainstorming does not demand of us the almost impossible feat of thinking creatively and judiciously at the same time.

In *Applied Imagination*, Osborne developed four rules for a brainstorming session. Other authorities have borrowed his rules and reworded them, but no matter how they are worded, they still state the same principles.

**1. Withhold judgment.** This is the first and foremost principle. Criticism stops the flow of ideas. No idea is to be ridiculed. Evaluation is to be withheld until later.

**2. Freewheeling is welcomed.** Shoot for the stars. No idea is too far-fetched. Many of our greatest ideas sounded absurd at first. You can't be sure an idea is crazy until you take a real look at it, and even if it is crazy, it may stimulate someone else to offer another idea.

**3. Quantity is wanted.** During the session, brainstormers should not concern themselves with quality. That comes later. The greater the number of ideas, the better the chances of finding the best one.

**4. "Hitchhike."** One objective is to combine and improve on ideas previously submitted. Often one idea sparks a closely related one. Lest the new one be forgotten, bring it out immediately. In the session, a hitchhiker signals by holding up his hand and snapping his fingers. He should be called on right away while the original idea is still fresh in everyone's mind.

A group of almost any size can try this technique, but the ideal group has 12 to 15 members. The problem must be limited and understood by each member. Someone must serve as moderator and someone as recorder. Recording each idea on a chalkboard helps the group to remember what has been suggested. It also stimulates hitchhiking.

A brainstorming session should have no set time limit. The moderator should keep the group going until he believes he cannot goad them into producing any more ideas. When slow periods occur (and they often do), the moderator should repeat the problem. This sometimes brings on a new burst of activity. If the moderator stops the group too soon, they will not produce all the ideas they are capable of bringing to light.

Brainstorming does not solve problems, but it does produce ideas for solving problems. After the session when the ideas are being evaluated, the group or a committee may decide that many of them are worthless. Nevertheless, a number of them will be promising

enough to be studied further. Often the idea that becomes the solution might not have been thought of but for the stimulation of the group and the requirement tc withhold judgment. It is also possible that some ideas may be adopted to solve other problems.

Brainstorming does not guarantee creativity. It is merely a technique to help us overcome blocks that stifle natural creative abilities. By forcing ourselves to adopt a questioning attitude and to withhold judgment, we can learn that we are capable of being creative.

*Charles (Bud) Wilkinson*

## BUD WILKINSON

Charles B. (Bud) Wilkinson became famous as an outstanding football coach. He continues to be famous as an outstanding human being. His record of accomplishments has seldom been equaled. While in high school, he excelled in football, baseball, basketball, track and hockey. He went on to play guard and quarterback at the University of Minnesota and win the Conference Medal for all-around proficiency in athletics and scholarship. During World War II, he saw extensive combat action as a hangar deck officer on the aircraft carrier *Enterprise*. He was discharged after the war at the rank of lieutenant commander and soon accepted an invitation to coach the University of Oklahoma's football team. There he rapidly won a reputation as the best in the business. Between 1946 and 1960 his Sooner teams won 118, lost 18, and tied 4. They won six out of seven bowl games, had thirty-one consecutive wins between 1948 and 1950 and forty-seven more consecutive victories between 1953 and 1957. They were National Champion three times—1950, 1955, and 1956. Five of his teams went undefeated and untied. Bud Wilkinson has continued his winning streak by becoming the widely known and highly successful broadcaster who helps millions of TV viewers better appreciate and enjoy the NCAA games.

He has won many honors, being named Coach of the Year by the National Football Coaches Association and the Associated Press and one of the ten Outstanding Young Men by the U.S. Junior Chamber of Commerce. One of his greatest honors came in 1961 when President John F. Kennedy chose him to be his special consultant on youth fitness.

These honors do more than acknowledge his professional success; they also pay tribute to his humanity. Bud Wilkinson has the reputation among players, coaches and peers as the best friend they could hope to have and the one person they would most like to be with in good times and bad.

How did he do it? How was he able to be both successful and popular? The answer is that the two accomplishments are simply different aspects of the same goal—success in life. Bud sought and discovered certain keys to success and found they work equally well in everything he attempts. Let's see what he discovered and how we can apply these principles to our own pursuits.

You've surely seen Bud Wilkinson broadcasting the NCAA games on ABC television. You know his warm friendliness, his zest for life. Those qualities are not parts of a stage personality. Bud *IS* a joyful person. In his book, *Modern Physical Fitness*, he explains that his joy of living comes from participating in life, every aspect of life that interests him, as vigorously and completely as he can.* By vigorous participation, he means playing as hard as he can—playing to win, in sports or anything else. He says you can't get the most out of art by strolling through a museum once a month, and you can't get the most out of sports by fooling around with them. Nor do you do anybody else a favor by letting him win. "The game can't give *you* any satisfaction," he says, "if *I'm* not trying. In fact, I'm really insulting you by not trying."

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* Charles B. Wilkinson, *Modern Physical Fitness* (Barnes and Noble, 1967). Subsequent references are to this edition.

No one could strive to win as hard as Bud does without getting enthusiastic, or finding that his enthusiasm is contagious. No wonder President Kennedy chose him over everyone else. Bud carries that same will to win into every job he tackles, whether it is on the carrier deck, on the gridiron, or in front of the TV camera. His goal is always the same—not just to beat an opponent, but to better the best he's ever done before, to discover how much he's willing to put out. And he has found that willingness to pay the price in terms of effort and concentration always brings results. He wasn't just a good coach, for instance, he was a tactical genius with the Split-T formation whose superb confidence rested on solid preparation.

"You can't bluff yourself," he says. "The only way you can build confidence is by preparation." To Wilkinson, preparation means more than just practice, though that is obviously important. You have to develop your skills to the limits of your God-given ability ,then you have to take a cold look at your abilities and develop a game strategy that exploits your strengths and minimizes your weaknesses. You have to learn the percentages so that you don't choke up from nervous tension when your opponent does what you could reasonably expect him to do. Bud gives an example from baseball: Mickey Mantle hit a home run off Warren Spahn to win a World Series game, but Spahn didn't worry about it at all. "I'm not a good enough pitcher to get him out every time," he said. "There's a percentage in athletics, and the percentage says that he's a good enough hitter to get some hits and I'm a good enough pitcher to get him out." Finally, Wilkinson says, being prepared means being ready to focus all your resources on the game. You have to be as warmed up mentally as you are physically. And once the contest begins, you can't give your opponent an inch.

With that kind of preparation, it's no wonder the Sooners won the Big Seven Conference twelve years straight! Notice, too, how much of Wilkinson's advice has to do with the emotional, or human side of athletics. There lies his greatest strength, his knowledge of men. His players regarded him as an older fraternity brother because he knew so well exactly what they were thinking and feeling. He knew, of course, because he'd been in their shoes and remembered how he'd felt in just such circumstances. More important, however, he was able to put those feelings—his and theirs—into words. Just as his own self-confidence inspired their confidence in him, and just as his own high self-respect heightened the value of the respect he showed to others, so his skill at oral communication won for him that special feeling of brotherhood that men only grant to the leaders they know are aware of their needs and will look out for their welfare. His players trusted him because they knew he did not see himself as the super-coach seeking personal glory at the expense of his players, but rather as the teacher whose ultimate purpose was to show others how to achieve the joy of living through the pursuit of excellence. When they looked at him, they not only saw a man of immense skill and great wisdom, but also one of enormous integrity.

Out of his experiences as athlete, naval officer, teacher, coach and broadcaster, comes Wilkinson's conclusion that life is a challenge, or rather a series of challenges, and that the better we master one of them the better we will do in the others. His life certainly bears out his conclusion. The lessons in teamwork that he learned as a ballplayer paid off in the Navy, and the powers of concentration which he developed there helped him master the job of

coaching. Finally, and most obviously, the oral communication skills and the ability to relate to people which he learned as a coach are directly responsible for his success as a broadcaster.

Bud Wilkinson continues to see life as a challenge and to meet each new one by going all out to win. Out of that vigorous participation and pursuit of excellence comes his zest for life, his joy of living. He continues to seek self-mastery and to learn more about the men and women around him. He still does not know what his ultimate limits are, or what else he may be able to accomplish.

CHAPTER 6

# TAKING COMMAND

As a senior in high school you may have experienced many of the duties of a leader within your school, within your community activities, and within your JROTC unit. As you perform the duties of leadership positions you become more aware of necessary leadership skills, and more aware of the responsibilities that accompany the positions. The subject matter of the JROTC course for the senior year is designed to emphasize the duties of various leadership roles; senior cadets are offered the opportunity to apply their leadership skills to a variety of jobs. By participating in leadership roles and experiencing the duties and requirements of a leader, you are able to better orient your own leadership development.

This chapter presents many aspects of the commander's role. The purpose of studying such roles is to give you an additional appreciation of the skill requirements, and to increase your recognition of the responsibilities of leadership. The basic leadership principles and skills which you are now practicing and developing may be applied to any field of endeavor. The leadership skills you effectively use in your high school roles can be later applied in positions from a salesman's desk to a lawyer's office.

## *THE COMMANDER'S ROLE AND AUTHORITY*

The commander is the appointed formal head of a unit. His relationship to his subordinates is not democratic, but is necessarily authoritarian. The commander, selected and appointed by virtue of special talents, training, and experience, is presumed to be better qualified than his subordinates to make the decisions that could mean success or failure for his unit.

Command is the lawful authority that a leader exerts over subordinates by virtue of rank and assignment. Authority is the power of a commander to command those subordinate to him, or to take action within his area of responsibility. In the Armed Forces of the United States this authority is derived from the powers specifically given to the Congress and to the President. Each person who enters the military service is made aware of the authority of appointed officers when he begins active duty. In effect he agrees to obey the orders of the President of the United States and the orders of officers appointed over him according to regulations and the Uniform Code of Military Justice.

An officer can be a commander without being a leader, or he can be an effective leader without being a commander. But he must be a good leader to be an *effective* commander. The effectiveness of a commander diminishes if he depends upon authority alone in dealing with his men. The good commander secures the cooperation of his men in their joint understanding of the mission, rather than demanding their obedience in an unknown undertaking. In short, the poor commander often drives; the good commander always leads.

The power of authority given a commander has a unique power to corrupt. History is replete with stories of military tyrants—leaders of armies who used their power for personal gain or to enhance personal ego. The military commander must bear in mind at least four considerations when utilizing the potential power inherent in his authority.

First, a commander has only as much authority over his subordinates as the people of the country are willing for him to have, and the general trend has been toward a reduction of command power. Revision of a military commander's authority is effected by action of the judicial and legislative branches of the federal government. Secondly, a commander must ensure that he uses his authority only to order one of his men to perform an act which is basically lawful. If a person receiving an unlawful order knows that the act is illegal and performs it anyway, the fact that he was carrying out the orders of a senior officer does not constitute a valid defense. Both he and the person issuing the order can be found guilty of the wrongful act. This principle was seen demonstrated in the famed Nuremberg trials after the Second World War, when German Nazi commanders who had killed Jewish civilians on orders from Hitler's headquarters were charged and convicted of murder.

The third necessary consideration for a commander when exercising his authority is expressed in the Fifth Amendment to the Constitution which states in part that "no person shall be . . . deprived of life, liberty, or property, without due process of law." If a commander is to give a valid and enforceable order to perform an act which might result in the loss of life or serious injury, there must be some impelling military necessity to act or some duty to act growing out of law, regulations, or customs. A commander, or leader, can deprive subordinates of their property only through well established procedures under the Uniform Code of Military Justice. For example, he may encourage his men to contribute to some charity, but he cannot force them to contribute. As to liberty, it is commonly recognized that a man surrenders a certain amount of personal freedom when he enters active military service. But when a commander deprives a man of his liberty as a punitive measure, he may do so only in accordance with the Uniform Code of Military Justice. Finally, the commander must remember that every man, even though a member of military forces, is entitled to pursue his private life as he chooses until military necessity requires otherwise. For example, commanders are not empowered to order a man to pay a private debt, to regulate his off-base driving privileges, or to prohibit his purchase of private property. When exercising his authority it may be necessary for a leader to be firm, and perhaps he must even be demanding, but there is never an excuse for him to be any less than fair. Authority must always be seasoned with justice.

## *THE COMMANDER'S RESPONSIBILITY*

The primary characteristic that distinguishes the commander's role from other leadership roles is the concept of command responsibility. The commander must assume complete responsibility for everything his unit does or fails to do. He may not place the blame for failures on his subordinates. He may delegate a portion of his authority to subordinates, but he cannot delegate his responsibility.

The responsibilities of the commander are many. He has responsibilities to his mission, to higher head-

quarters, to his unit, to his community, and to himself. These are primarily responsibilities of command, but because every officer shares command responsibilities, they are responsibilities of every officer. Frequently a commander's responsibilities will appear to conflict, and problems of divided responsibility may be difficult to solve. The commander often must choose one course of action from among several apparently correct alternatives. At other times there may not appear to be any suitable course of action, and the commander may have to select the one course which is least undesirable. Decisions such as these are difficult to make, but the commander must make them. No one can make them for him. If the commander is to faithfully discharge his responsibilities, he must be decisive. If he is to be decisive, he must understand his responsibilities and their relative importance, in order to assign priorities.

**Responsibility to Mission**

Mission accomplishment is the only reason for the existence of the military instrument. This is why men in the military have one agreed-upon axiom: Every military leader must have a sense of mission if he is to be effective.

This sense of mission is the foundation of the military officer's philosophy of leadership and even his philosophy of life. When he takes his oath of office, he affirms that he will "support and defend the Constitution of the United States against all enemies. . . ." Having undertaken this solemn obligation, the military officer knows that there will be times when he will have to put responsibility to his mission above all self-interests, including family, friends, and even his own life. Unless he is willing to do this, and makes up his mind in advance to do so, he will find it difficult to make sound decisions when conflicts arise between responsibility to mission and other responsibilities.

At times the military officer will face several problems and be uncertain about which one takes priority. He can generally find the right answer by asking himself, "Which one is most important for the accomplishment of my mission?"

There are times when the military commander will have to risk the lives of his men as well as his own in order to accomplish his mission. This is the most difficult test of the military leader. Unless he has an unyielding sense of mission, he will be unable to make the kind of life-or-death decisions that are required of a combat commander. He must also instill this same sense of mission in his men, or they will be unwilling to risk their lives for the sake of the mission. Properly trained and led, they will realize that the mission objective is paramount. In the words of General Washington, "Impress upon the mind of every man, from the first to the lowest, the importance of the cause and what it is they are contending for."

It has been said that the good leader is one "who stands for something." Our great military leaders have stood for the accomplishment of their mission. They unwaveringly stood for victory over the enemy. Their staunchness of purpose, their tenacious determination to win, were the prime elements of their greatness. For the military commander, all other responsibilities are secondary to the accomplishment of the mission. General Omar Bradley had a regimental commander in the Sicilian Campaign in World War II who exemplified the devotion to duty expected of every leader. The commander, Colonel Harry Flint of the 39th Infantry, wore the letters "AAA–

O" stenciled on his helmet. The Colonel called the symbol his personal trademark, and explained that it meant "Anything, Anytime, Anywhere, Bar Nothing." The spirit expressed by that slogan is representative of the proper attitude toward mission accomplishment.

**Responsibility to Higher Headquarters**

Each successive higher echelon is in a better position to visualize and interpret the overall mission and to assign missions to subordinate units. Likewise, a unit commander should know more about the overall mission than his men. He should know that the orders and directives of higher headquarters are elements of the mission itself, and he must carry out such directives with diligence. If he expects obedience from his own unit, he must set the example by following instructions of his seniors.

If a leader fails to support his seniors sincerely, he will compromise his own efforts. When an officer criticizes his leaders and their methods, he can rest assured that he will be criticized by his own men. To inspire confidence in the mission, the commander must inspire confidence in the higher echelons as well. To do this the commander carries out directives of higher headquarters as if they were his own. When he disagrees with those directives, he should deal directly with his seniors and never discuss the disagreement with his men. Once having voiced his disagreement to the proper person, if the directive still stands, he must carry it out with his utmost enthusiasm and not alibi or pass the buck.

**Responsibility to Unit**

Responsibility to his unit is the responsibility that is most gratifying to the commander. His unit is composed of people that he knows well; people he sees daily; people who share his successes and failures; people he admires and respects; people whose welfare is of most importance to him. But although he is greatly concerned about them, he must subordinate his unit to his mission and to higher headquarters. This does not mean that the commander should carelessly or foolishly sacrifice his unit for the sake of the mission or to please higher authority. It does mean maximum safety consistent with the mission requirement is a major responsibility the commander has to his unit. This responsibility weighs heavily on the commander when he has to order his men into combat or make them work to the limits of endurance under hazardous conditions. But he must not let his feelings for his men cloud his judgment when he has to make decisions that will affect the mission. If the commander has done everything in his power to see that his men are properly trained and conditioned, he can commit his unit with confidence that they will accomplish their mission. A sign in the operations section at the Marine Corps' 1st Infantry Training Regiment at Camp Lejeune, N.C., reminds the instructors: "Let no man's ghost say your training let him down."

Mental preparation is just as important for a military unit as physical preparation. If the unit is instilled with a selfless, crystal-clear concept of the mission, the commander will not have to worry about their performance. It is this consciousness of mission that helps make a unit cohesive, purposeful, strong, and inspiring. If the commander compromises his own dedication to the mission, he will destroy the very thing that gives his unit loyalty and esprit.

**Responsibility to Individuals**

Apart from the commander's responsibility to the mission and to his

unit, he has a definite responsibility to the individuals in his unit. Fundamental to command leadership is the treatment of individuals according to the concepts of democracy and decency. Military troops are not to be treated as automatons. They are not chess pieces to be coldly manipulated without thought for personal rights and dignity. Military men of today are better informed and better educated than ever before, and they will not respond to unimaginative leadership. If the commander is to expect obedience to his orders, he must earn the respect of his subordinates, and he does this by letting them know he is interested in them as individuals. He takes the time to get to know his men—their attitudes, abilities, and interests. When the men in a unit believe their commander has a sincere interest in them and a genuine appreciation for their individual worth, they are much more willing to accept his authority and respond to his leadership.

Gaining the respect of individuals in his unit does not mean that the commander surrenders his status and authority. The men do not expect or desire their commander to put himself on their level. Neither should he be patronizing or over-solicitous of their good will. Familiarity does in fact breed contempt. The commander who strives to be popular with his men jeopardizes his own authority as well as that of his junior officers and NCOs. He can avoid this and maintain the respect of his men by observing proper military courtesy, i.e., by addressing officers and NCOs by their proper titles—"Sergeant Jones", not "Jones" or "Bill"; by strict adherence to the chain of command; by praising subordinates in public and censuring in private; by fair and equal treatment without playing favorites; and by sharing the hardships and dangers of his men whenever it is appropriate.

It is also important for the morale of a unit for individuals to know that their commander is willing to listen to them. They want to know that he will hear their complaints, as well as their ideas and suggestions. The commander should always keep channels of communication open, through the chain of command, for subordinates to voice their gripes as well as their ideas and suggestions. This does not mean that the commander must address every grievance personally. Routine matters should be handled by junior officers and NCOs, but the commander must insist that they keep him informed.

Another responsibility of the commander to his men is to keep them informed. Men will be better motivated to do a task if they know why it is being done and how their individual roles fit into the whole show. If the troops are not kept informed of things that are of vital interest to them, they will start to speculate about their place in the scheme of things. They will begin to circulate rumors to fill the void left by the lack of information. Before the amphibious landings by Marines in the Pacific during World War II, the troops were given detailed briefings of the landing plan and the scheme of maneuver ashore. Their commanders knew that in the confusion of battle, small units and individuals would sometimes be isolated from other units, but if they knew the "big picture," they would know that they were not alone. This knowledge no doubt was responsible for the countless acts of heroism by small units and individuals who, although isolated from friendly forces, still fought on to their objectives because they knew that success of the entire operation depended upon each man performing his own mission, no matter how small.

The commander who shows genuine interest in the welfare of his men, who is responsive to their individual needs, and who keeps them informed will be well on his way toward fulfilling his responsibility to individuals in his unit. By treating them with respect and dignity he will gain not only their respect, but their willingness and enthusiastic response to his leadership.

The late LtGen. Lewis B. (Chesty) Puller, USMC, constantly exemplified this concern for his men. For example, as a regimental commander in Korea the then Colonel Puller had his head shaved, and ordered his troops to do the same to avoid the menace of lice. He told his men that he just couldn't see himself writing to a parent to tell the father or mother that a son had been killed by a louse in a combat zone. General Puller was concerned for the health of his men, and he showed that concern by issuing an order which was for their good; then the General set the example for the execution of that order.

**Responsibility to Self**

The commander also has a responsibility to himself, or to be more accurate, he has a responsibility for himself. Because of all of his other responsibilities, he must see that he is at all times capable of meeting them effectively. He must maintain self-discipline, good physical and mental health, and he must seek to increase his professional knowledge and competence. By doing so you make of yourself a better officer. The Chinese philosopher Confucius said: "Respect yourself and others will respect you." One of a commander's chief responsibilities to himself is to earn first his own self-respect.

Self-discipline enables a person to manage his activities in an orderly and efficient manner. The demands on a commander's time and energy are great. If the commander lacks self-discipline, he will be unable to find enough hours in the day to meet all of his responsibilities. The leader with self-discipline will not let poor personal habits or selfish interests distract him from his mission. He will plan wisely and act promptly on important matters. He will be a self-starter and will take action on his own initiative without having to be directed. Self-discipline also enables the commander to remain calm in the face of emergencies and helps him to make sound and logical decisions. The commander who is unable to discipline himself will not be able to instill discipline in his men.

The military leader must be responsible for his own physical and mental health. The physical demands and the mental pressures weigh heavy on the commander, and the leader who is in good physical condition has a reserve of strength that enables him to maintain his efficiency for longer periods of time than the person who has let himself get out of condition. Many of the commander's duties involve very little physical exertion, but have a very high fatigue factor. This means the commander must take time away from his regular duties to develop the stamina that will keep him functioning at peak efficiency. Good physical conditioning contributes to mental health, but a person also needs rest, relaxation, and recreation to help relieve mental pressures. These periods of relief from the normal routine enable him to return to work with renewed interest and a fresh approach to old problems.

The commander must continually strive for self-improvement. He must find time for study to increase his professional knowledge. He must also find time to practice the skills that will increase his competence as a military leader. Edgar Puryear in his book, *Nineteen Stars*, tells of the writer on

World War II who commented: "One miracle I could not explain is how the U.S., an unwarlike and unprepared country if there ever was one, was suddenly able to produce so large and so brilliant a group of military leaders . . . Where did they come from, and what had they been doing all those twenty years . . . ?".

Puryear goes on to explain what men like Douglas MacArthur, Dwight Eisenhower, George Marshall, and George Patton were doing. They were taking advantage of every opportunity to improve their professional knowledge and military proficiency. George Marshall, for example, tried to learn everything possible that would help him to become a better officer. He found time to attend every school offered by the military that was pertinent to his career. Whenever the Army got a new weapon, he took it home with him, or to a warehouse if it was a large weapon, where he would take it apart and put it back together again, with the manual in his hand, until he knew everything he could learn about its functioning. The dedication of such great leaders as these to their responsibility for self improvement paid huge dividends when their nation had to call upon their skill and competence.

## *THE COMMANDER'S DUTIES*

An officer is often thought of as the individual who gives the orders, but there is much more to the duties of a commander than just issuing orders. General George Patton said giving orders should only take ten percent of your time; the remaining ninety percent of your time should be devoted to personal supervision of the execution of those orders. But you should also be aware that commanders don't come up with orders by divine inspiration. There are many things a commander must accomplish before he is ready to issue an order. The leader is responsible for managing his unit in such a way that its work gets done efficiently and effectively. In order to do this, he must know the basic principles of management and the functions of command.

Following are the generally accepted principles which serve to guide a commander in managing his organization:

Unity of Command
Span of Control
Homogeneous Assignment
Delegation of Authority

*Unity of Command* is the principle which deals with the chain of command within an organization. It means that there should be only "one boss." No man should be subjected to the simultaneous and equally authoritative controls of more than one superior in any one phase of activity. Of course you may have different superiors exercising control over different areas of activity, but in each area there should be one man, and only one, who exercises final authority. Unity of Command is, aside from being conducive to efficient operations, a form of protection for subordinates.

One illustration of a case where this principle was violated, and considerable confusion resulted, was seen in the China command of General Joseph W. Stilwell during World War II. For a long period of time General Stilwell had at least three different higher headquarters, whose interests did not always coincide. As Deputy Supreme Allied Commander of the Burma Theater, "Vinegar Joe" Stilwell reported to a British officer, Admiral Lord Mountbatten; as Chief of Staff to the Supreme Commander of the China Theater, his allegiance was to the Chinese leader, Generalissimo Chiang Kai-Shek; and as Commanding General of all American forces in China, Burma, and India he was re-

sponsible to the United States' Joint Chiefs of Staff. These three world powers often issued conflicting directions to General Stilwell about what he was to do, and when and where he was to do it. As he had only one military force, it is easy to understand that the General was usually hard pressed to satisfy all his commanders.

*Span of Control*, on the other hand, is a form of protection for superiors. It is a principle which dictates that a leader must not be compelled to exercise direct control of, and responsibility for, more men than he can manage efficiently. That is one reason for the "chain of command." A platoon leader works directly with four people: the platoon sergeant and his squad leaders, and the squad leaders primarily direct fireteam leaders, etc. The lieutenant doesn't try to personally supervise fifty men. A leader must be able to work closely with his subordinates. He cannot do so if he is responsible for too many people at once. This is certainly not a new principle, for even in Biblical days it was practiced. The book of Exodus says that "Moses chose able men out of all Israel, and made them heads over the people, rulers of thousands, rulers of hundreds, rulers of fifties, and rulers of tens." Span of Control also teaches the importance of the time-space relationship between senior and subordinate; that is, a leader should never be too far from his men, either in time or in distance, to exercise supervision. At the same time, he must not be continuously "on top" of his men, for this would bring about oversupervision, which is as serious in its consequences as undersupervision.

*Homogeneous Assignment* is a principle which is concerned with the placing of the right man in the proper job. The assignment of jobs and tasks must be done with the utmost care by unit commanders. Both an individual and a unit must be given tasks for which they are suited in every way: physically, mentally, and emotionally. If care is taken by the commander to exercise this principle of homogeneous assignment, a higher degree of efficiency and morale will be assured.

*Delegation of Authority* is a principle which follows naturally from homogeneous assignment. Once a man has been given a job to do and the responsibility of getting that job successfully accomplished, he must be given whatever authority is necessary for him to accomplish it. Whether it be the procuring of necessary supplies or the issuing of directives to other men, a man must have authority, or he obviously will be helpless to complete his assignment.

It is the leader's responsibility to see to it that his organization is regulated by these guiding principles in order that it may best accomplish its mission.

In following the principles of management, there are five basic functions of command with which the leader is charged:

Planning
Organizing
Directing
Coordinating
Controlling

If you examine these five words you will find that they comprise a simple breakdown of the steps involved in organizing a unit to perform a task. In fact, they are so basic that they apply to individual action as well as to integrated unit activities.

*Planning* is the initial step of any action. It consists of understanding the assigned mission, gathering related information, attempting to discover abilities and inabilities, exploring pos-

sibilities, and listing available resources. Planning is the function which requires the most knowledge and judgment, and it must be done first, before the other functions can be started.

*Organizing* consists of the assembling of men and material and arranging them in a manner most likely to result in the effective completion of the mission at hand. Planning is mental work; organizing is both mental and physical —both thought and action are involved.

*Directing* is the orientation of activity toward the desired goal. It generally consists of the issuing of orders and the establishment of working policies to cover all phases of the projected activity. This function, while all important, probably requires the least amount of time. But it does require the greatest amount of care. The military officer's authority to issue orders to subordinates is intended to expedite the execution of military tasks. It is not intended to be used for indulging the whims of officers. There are at least four tests which should be applied to every order given. Every order must be: (1) related to military duty, morale, or discipline; (2) clear and unequivocal; (3) received *and* understood, and (4) within the authority of the issuing officer.

An officer should never issue an order to settle his own personal and private disputes, and he must at all times refrain from issuing an order as a matter of personal convenience. Since no person can execute an order he does not understand, the commander must insure that his orders state clearly and exactly what is or is not to be done. If a commander is indecisive and issues vague or incomplete instructions which could possibly be misunderstood, he may rest assured that they will be misunderstood. A Civil War commander, General Sedgwick, was said to have kept one officer on his staff who was noted as not being overly intelligent. Every order written in the headquarters was given to this slow-thinking individual, and if even he could understand it, then the order was sent out. The commander must also make certain that any order issued is received, although it is not necessary that the receiver acknowledge each order personally. Remember that if an officer exceeds his authority by giving an illegal or unenforceable order, he destroys prestige, impairs leadership, and undermines discipline.

*Coordinating* concerns itself primarily with securing the cooperation of units and personnel not under your control. This function is closely tied in with your attitude and sense of responsibility toward other units. Frequently the success of your mission will depend to a large degree upon the amount and quality of your cooperation with others and the cooperation you can elicit from others.

*Controlling* is the final phase, and it constitutes the most comprehensive function of command. It implies the active supervision necessary to ensure that the unit is moving toward the accomplishment of its mission. It is not a shortlived function, but a continuous one, because a unit must be guided to some degree throughout its activity. Another famous American commander, General John J. Pershing, was conducting an inspection trip during World War I and looked into a project that had been well planned, but was being poorly executed. Pershing asked the officer-in-charge how much pay he received, and when the lieutenant replied: "$141.67 per month, Sir," the General responded by reminding the young man that he got $1.67 for planning and issuing the order, and $140.00 for seeing that the order was carried out.

While the commander is primarily interested in stressing the human qualities and relationships which comprise good leadership, it must be recognized that every leader is faced with a good many administrative duties which are necessary for the efficient functioning of a unit. For example, in seeing to it that his men have what they need in terms of material, motivation, and mental ease, an officer will on occasion be concerned with requisitioning supplies. He will also have to be very much concerned with the keeping of records in his unit and with the methodical handling of business transactions of various sorts. Although much of this type of activity is strictly routine, it must not be ignored, because it is a very definite and integral part of leadership responsibilities. Attention to detail, necessary in all that you do, is especially important in all administrative affairs.

*Admiral H. G. Rickover, USN, (Ret)*

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# ADMIRAL HYMAN GEORGE RICKOVER, UNITED STATES NAVY

Commonly called the father of our nuclear Navy, Admiral Rickover, more than any other individual, is responsible for the rapid development of the nuclear ship program in this country. Daily demonstrating the unceasing drive and energy which has marked him as an exceptional leader for more than half a century, Admiral Rickover has held tenaciously to a single important goal throughout his career—his aim through all possible frustrations and opposition has always been to get the job done. Clinging consistently to that goal the Admiral has utilized his professional competence and technical knowledge in many different engineering tasks for the U.S. Navy, with noteworthy success. The best example of his devoted efforts for achievement are seen in this nation's nuclear submarine program; it was the work of Admiral Rickover which led to the laying of the keel of the world's first nuclear powered ship well in advance of its original schedule.

Hyman George Rickover was born on the 27th of January, 1900, in Chicago, Illinois. He attended high school in that city before his appointment to the United States Naval Academy in Annapolis, Maryland, in 1918. He graduated from the Academy and was commissioned an ensign in 1922, subsequently serving on two different surface ships before returning to school to study electrical engineering. After studying at the U.S. Naval Postgraduate School and Columbia University, he attended submarine training at the Submarine Base in New London, Connecticut. For the next three years Rickover served at sea aboard two different submarines. After two years in an engineering billet in Philadelphia, Rickover returned to sea duty aboard the battleship USS MEXICO, and then commanded his own ship for a year.

In 1939 Admiral Rickover was assigned to the Bureau of Ships, Navy Department, Washington, D.C., where he remained throughout the greater part of World War II. For his exceptionally meritorious work as head of the Electrical Section of the Bureau of Ships he was awarded the Legion of Merit in 1946. The citation accompanying the medal made note of the Admiral's superior performance of duty; Rickover was then a captain. His invaluable service during the war period, when ship building and maintenance were all important to our combat efforts on two different sides of the globe, included expediting production of all Navy electrical power and lighting equipment; overcoming tremendous procurement difficulties in obtaining needed raw materials, manufacturing facilities, and skilled manpower; and determining what would be needed in the future for the expanding role of modern naval warfare. His foresight and ability allowed every requirement to be met, and provided for continual improvements in Navy electrical equipment.

Near the end of the war the then

Captain Rickover was sent on temporary duty to the Naval Repair Base in Okinawa, where he was responsible for building the repair base and facilities to prepare naval vessels for the impending attack on Japan. From that post, another difficult task completed in the most expeditious manner, Rickover reported to San Francisco, remaining there until 1946. In California he was engaged in the complex problems of "mothballing" vessels of the Pacific Fleet, preserving them in storage in such a manner that they might be made ready for combat again in short order if required. The Admiral's next assignment, to the Manhattan Project in Oak Ridge, Tennessee, was to begin his illustrious career in the field of nuclear propulsion. The Manhattan Project was assigned the task of development of the atomic bomb, and the further development of other uses for atomic power, and Rickover was Assistant Director of Operations for the project.

For his leadership in the field of nuclear propulsion Admiral Rickover was given a Gold Star in lieu of a second Legion of Merit medal, while serving as Chief of Naval Reactors Branch for the Atomic Energy Commission, from 1949 to 1952. The Admiral was acclaimed for his talents in the field of mobile power reactors and especially complimented for his careful and accurate planning and his ability to clarify and resolve problems arising between the Navy, various government agencies, and civilian contractors. Continuing years of work in the same field brought still more honors to Admiral Rickover, including the Distguished Service Medal, to whic' Gold Star was added later. More and more the nation came to appreciate the skillful technical direction, unusual foresight, and unswerving perseverance of Hyman Rickover. He not only led the nation to world pre-eminence in the area of naval nuclear propulsion, but additionally his vision in planning for the training of crew members for nuclear powered ships and his insistence on high engineering standards have been notable in preparing the Navy and the nation for the exciting demands of a nuclear age.

The dynamic leadership and outstanding professional competence of H. G. Rickover have made him a source of wise counsel to this country and others in matters affecting the national security and efficient use of atomic power. Because of the Admiral's keen insight and discerning intelligence, his leadership ability has been such that the reliability and productive lifespan of nuclear power plants have been significantly increased, while the costs of the equipment have been lowered. Vice Admiral Rickover transferred to the Retired List of the U.S. Navy in 1964, but his dedication to the job kept him at work with the Atomic Energy Commission and the Bureau of Ships. Admiral Rickover was promoted to his present rank, while retired, on 16 November 1973. He is retained on active duty by special act of Congress.

Admiral Rickover married while a junior Naval officer, and has one son. His dedication to his wife is noted in the preface of his latest book, *Eminent Americans*, a tribute to the great leaders after whom the ships of the Polaris submarine fleet are named. What little spare time the Admiral has had in his busy life has been devoted to studying and writing about the fields of education and history; he has had four books published. In his latest book Rickover says, "We must have more leaders who set the example for our people. . . ." Certainly Admiral H. G. Rickover can be listed high among these leaders.

CHAPTER 7

# LEADERSHIP OF WOMEN

*"Women must try to do things as men have tried; when they fail, then failure must be a challenge to others."*

Amelia Earhart

Each human being is, and desires to be special. The Marine Corps Junior ROTC offers boys and girls a unique opportunity to develop that specialness. This chapter, devoted to consideration of women in history, is designed to remind modern students of the heritage that is theirs.

Although the position maintained by women in previous ages seemed minor at times, rarely is the history of any period devoid of famous and influential women. The impossibility of doing justice to even a quarter of the women worthy of investigation throughout the ages has necessarily limited this chapter to the treatment of a representative few from major historical periods in western civilization.

Women have not always been recognized for their intellectual abilities nor have they always been accorded equal status with men. This present age is witnessing a growing awareness of the important role of women in all phases of life—at home, in business, in technology and science. Consequently, there are new opportunities that can only be fully grasped through education, training, and experience.

The question of the role of women in society has been discussed in one form or another in every century. Those who would say that the feminist movement is strictly a movement of the 70's or that the emancipation of women began at a late date in world history should remember that chroniclers and historians are vital to the lasting memory of every era. The facts as they interpret and record them are our touch with a world and a people we would otherwise have never known. While some periods flourished with accounts of feminine personalities, there are still others when the attitude toward women was so negative that little was thought of such import to preserve.

The lives of great women of history afford modern women the opportunity to learn from their experience the elements necessary for effective leadership. The qualities and attributes by which they distinguished themselves continue to distinguish women today even under the framework of modern society. Indira Gandhi, Prime Minister of India (the world's most populous democracy) is an example of a modern woman who continues in the tradition of leadership exemplified by Miriam, Esther, and Judith in the Old Testament, Cleopatra of Egypt, and Elizabeth of England.

The story of Deborah which is recounted in the Bible is an example of one of history's great leaders. She lived in the times of Judges and was,

without doubt, one of the mo extraordinary women recorded in the Old Testament. In an era when the potential of woman was almost totally unrecognized, we see how she blended with skill and talent her life as a prophetess and judge, wife and mother. It was her profound wisdom, strength of character, and dedication to her people that enabled her to create the conditions affecting a deliverance of the northern tribes of Israel from the oppression of the Cannaanites. For them she secured a peace of 40 years' duration—an accomplishment even modern man is unable to equal.

In Egypt, historians tell us of the high esteem in which women were held and the true equality with which they were invested. Accounts given by ancient Egyptian writers of the arts, sciences, laws, and most importantly the culture and wisdom of the Egyptians, point to the fact that women of their society were deeply loved and respected. In spite of the fact that little can be found on moral or physical distinction between Egyptian men and women it is obvious in the positions maintained by them as ruling queens, prophetesses, and businesswomen, the value and great trust placed in the judgment and counsel of Egyptian women.

Following the Egyptian period few records, if any, are found on women until the time of Moses, and only sketchy accounts in the Greek period. Even though modern man looks to the Greeks for instruction in philosophy, literature, poetry, oratory, and most particularly in the arts, their actual recorded history was written by men, for men, and about men, leaving us of modern times only to piece together a picture of what might have been the Grecian woman.

Historians throughout the ages have, of necessity, drawn basic conclusions concerning Grecian women from the epic poetry of the Hellenic period of Greek history. While little was recorded by historians on feminine life-style, epic poetry of this period is replete with accounts of their heroic deeds and outstanding accomplishments. The famous poet, Homer, gained particular acclaim in the development of his female characters in the *Iliad* and the *Odyssey*. Penelope, among the most noble women of his description, is regarded as the epitome of wifely virtue and motherhood. A woman of tremendous character and loyalty, she exhibited unwavering devotion to Ulysses during his twenty year absence from Ithaca. Women of every generation have regarded Penelope as a model and an ideal type—an embodiment of womanly virtue and strength.

Roman women, unlike women of Greece, were permitted many more privileges in their society. They were allowed to own property, participate in business, and have a voice in many of the higher councils of government. Among the pioneers of the intellectual movement in Rome and one of the most beautiful types of learned women of her age was Cornelia, mother of the Gracchi. Her fame is primarily a result of her devotion to her two sons, Tiberius and Caius. She was their teacher and counselor; and it was her educated and refined mind that, more than anything else, contributed to the formation of those outstanding characters so admired by their Roman countrymen. Cornelia's excellence in the Roman forum established her place among scholars. She delivered lectures on philosophy and letters and organized philosophical conclaves drawing great minds from all over the Empire to Rome. Cicero says of her, "Cornelia . . . deserved the first place among philosophers."

Another equally courageous and

heroic woman of Rome was Agrippina, wife of Germanicus. Her strength, dignity, bravery, and patriotic enthusiasm enabled her, as Tacitus informs us, to command "a greater power in the army than legates and commanders, and she, a woman, had quelled a mutiny which even the emperor's authority could not check."

The latter part of the Roman period saw a gradual revival of interest in religion and religious ceremonies. The ideologies of Chistianity began to develop, bringing with it new concepts and new influences which elevated and ennobled women. Consequently, Chistianity found ready acceptance and eager support among women throughout Europe in these early days.

The conversion of many European countries was attributed to the zealous and enthusiastic work of women who influenced royal hierarchy. An early woman of such influence was Clotilda who brought Christianity to France. Clotilda, daughter of the Burgundian king, became queen of France through marriage. Although a Christian, she had been unable after much effort to convert her pagan husband. Finally in 496, engaged in great battle and finding defeat on every front, the king vowed to convert to Christianity if Clotilda's God would come to his aid. He arose victorious, and the religious history of France—and some might argue, the world—was changed.

*GREAT RULERS*

History is filled with accounts of women who influenced and directed the destinies of their countries. Among such women was Blanche of Castile, queen of France and wife of Louis VIII. She was an exceedingly talented woman with a remarkable ability to achieve results through her organization and direction. She personally monitored and controlled all the government departments, including the military establishment. With resolute conviction she successfully quelled numerous uprisings that threatened the country during her reign. Her strength of character and superior ability to rule left a lasting mark on the history of France. She was considered one of the most illustrious personalities of her time.

Another woman immortalized by her bravery and loved and revered by generation upon generation was the Maid of Orleans, Joan of Arc. The story surrounding her life is one of the most mysterious and beautiful to be found in fiction or in fact. Joan's entry into history came in the middle of a great power struggle between the English and French known as the Hundred Years' War. From her earliest childhood she knew the meaning of war, not war in another country, on another soil, but in her own city, among her own people. Two French factions, the Burgundians and the Armagnacs, arose as bitter enemies and became as much a threat to the existence of France as a nation as their traditional rivals, the English.

Out of a country whose treasury was exhausted, whose soldiers were without hope or courage, and whose king was resigned to his fate, emerged one of the most successful and unique commanders-in-chief of all times. Although her career covered only two short years, Joan's accomplishments of French unification and English defeat established her place in history alongside such makers of nations as Alexander and Charlemagne, Caeser and Napoleon.

Her relentless drive and undeviating purpose enabled her to achieve in two years what the entire French army was unable to do in over a century. Joan's victorious siege of Orleans effectively turned the tide of the Hundred Years' War and saved France from

utter destruction. The pure spirit and spotless character of Joan of Arc was and is a marvel and an inspiration.

Eighteenth century France was especially noted for its influential women:

> They gave more grace to wit, more daring to philosophy, more generosity to political contests, and more heroism to defeat and death. For those who know how to look beyond the mere surface of history, the action of women in France during the eighteenth century will not soon be forgotten. She appears in that age the most remarkable since the Reformation—connected with every important question. We behold her giving a stronger impulse to literature and thought; and like man earnestly seeking, through all the mists and errors of human knowledge, to solve the great social and political problems which still agitate us in our day.[1]

There have been many great queens whose reigns were outstanding for good works and accomplishments. Martia, queen of the Britons, was one of these. She was the widow of Gutling, King of the Britons, and was left protectoress of the kingdom during the childhood of her son. Observing the inequities existing in the statutes governing her subjects, she divised a set of laws which were to revolutionize the legal system in England. These laws establishing trial by jury and the just descent of property were, in her honor, called Martian statutes. Years later Alfred the Great realized the fairness and impartiality of these laws and used them in governing his own kingdom. Edward the Confessor, who further revised and improved the basic laws, said: "there is every reason to suppose that the common law of England, attributed to Alfred the Great, was by him derived from the laws first established by a British queen Martia."[2]

Among the noted queens of the world, Elizabeth of England is probably the most famous; Catherine of Russia, the most brilliant; Victoria of England, the most beloved; but for courage, intellect, and sincerity Maria Theresa of Austria is accorded the highest honor. While as a wife and mother her record is unparalleled by any queen, her true fame lies in the genius of her rule. As the only woman ruler of the Hapsburg dynasty, she accomplished more than any previous ruler. She prevented the disintegration of the Austrian empire. The distinction of raising Austria to one of the greatest powers of the civilized world is credited to her skill and talent.

Fredrick II of Prussia was Maria Theresa's life-long and very dangerous enemy. Of her he said:

> She prepared in the secrecy of the cabinet thought-projects, which she afterwards carried into execution. She introduced an order of accounting into her finances unknown to her ancestors. To introduce better discipline into her army she formed camps and personally visited them that she might animate her troops. The army acquired such a degree of perfection as it had never attained under any of her predecessors.[3]

## *COURAGE IN WARTIME*

Throughout the centuries patriotic enthusiasm has motivated women to take part in battles and wars to defend their home, family, and country. They have repeatedly shown themselves courageous, proud, and heroic. Susanna Lorantffy, a Hungarian patriot, distinguished herself as both a heroine and a philanthropist. During the war of 1644, she not only organized the army and supervised military operations

and fortress defenses, but also cared for prisoners of war. She established boarding schools, founded scholarships and endowments, and invited noted scientists from other countries to participate as professors. She endowed colleges, established bureaus of printing, and was the source of encouragement to numerous authors. Susanna is one of the most esteemed women patriots of Hungarian history.

The story of the "Dames of Weinsberg" is a splendid account of women's courage in wartime. The Emperor Conrad III was at war with Welf, Duke of Bavaria. As Conrad prepared to destroy the town of Weinsberg, women of the town begged his mercy, and as a result he granted their freedom with the stipulation that only the valuables able to be carried by each on her back could be taken from the city. How could anyone not have been struck by the courage, loyalty, and cleverness of those women as they emerged from the city, each with a man on her back—for them, their most valuable possessions. The Emperor, touched by the extraordinary performance of these women, not only kept his word to them, but offered peace terms for settlement of the war.

The history of courageous women of the ages would not be complete without the inclusion of the famous Spanish heroine Agustina Domonech. In 1808 the city of Saragossa was under heavy attack by the French army. When Agustina arrived at the main gate of the city with food and supplies, not a single man remained alive. The guns were abandoned and silent. At a distant post she saw a small group of men still on duty, but stunned and unable to fight. Agustina picked up a match from the hand of a dead gunner and fired off a 620 pound cannon and vowed she would maintain that post until the end of the siege. Her magnificent courage and brilliant example inspired and rejuvenated the hesitant group, and they rushed to battle at her side. She stood unwavering at her position in the face of many crushing attacks for the duration of the seige which lasted 50 days.

Since the establishment of the earliest colonies, American women have played important roles in the country's history, distinguishing themselves at home and also, when necessary, on the battlefield. Poets and writers of the Revolutionary period found great inspiration in the devoted and heroic deeds of women during those times. W. D. Gallagher in their praise and honor wrote:

> Proud were they by such to stand,
> In hammock, fort or glen;
> To load the sure old rifle,
> To run the leaden ball,
> To watch a battling husband's place
> And fill it, should be he fall.

The noble act of Molly Pitcher is an illustration of the feelings expressed by Mr. Gallagher. On Sunday, 28 June 1778, one of the hottest days recorded in New Jersey history, Molly Pitcher won her fame at the Battle of Monmouth. Her husband, a gunner, manning one of the forward cannons, was fatally wounded by an enemy round. Molly, who had been bringing water to him from a spring, at once took his place and with skill and accuracy fired the weapon, thus defending the position and saving the cannon from British capture.

Her courageous efforts and superior stamina in singly manning the gun contributed greatly to the winning of the battle. For her bravery, General Washington gave Molly a lieutenant's commission and placed her name on the Roll of Honor. Monuments on Mon-

mouth Battlefield and at Carlisle, Pa., commemorate her action and serve to remind women of today of the quality and patriotic bravery of early American women.

A little-known but thrilling story of women during the Revolutionary War took place at Valley Forge. The noted historian, William Fowler, offers an exciting account of the event:

> The winter at Valley Forge was the darkest season in the Revolutionary struggle. The American army was sheltered by miserable huts, through which the rain and sleet found their way upon the wretched cots where the patriots slept. By day the ralf famished soldiers in tattered regimentals wandered through the camp and the snow showed the bloody tracks of their shoeless feet. Mutinous mutterings disturbed the sleep of Washington, and one dark, cold day, the soldiers at dusk were on the point of revolt. Nature could endure no more, and not from want of patriotism, but from want of food and clothes, the patriotic cause seemed likely to fail. Pinched with cold and wasted with hunger, the soldiers pined beside their dying campfires. Suddenly a shout was heard from the sentinels who passed the outer lines, and at the same time a cavalcade came slowly through snow up the valley. Ten women in carts, each cart drawn by ten pairs of oxen, and bearing tons of meal and other supplies, passed through the lines amid cheers that filled the air. The devoted women had saved the army, and Independence from that day was preserved.[4]

In America's struggle to establish herself as an independent nation. many confrontations at home and abroad were to test the strength and ability of its newly formed military. Although military service was open only to men, there are many accounts of women whose male disguises were so complete as to prevent their discovery. One such woman was Deborah Sampson. Under the alias Robert Shurtliff, Deborah enlisted as a soldier in the Continental army and fought for three years with the 4th Massachusetts Regimeint until wounded in an engagement at Tarrytown, New York. A Dr. Binney at the hospital to which she was sent discovered her sex, and she was subsequently discharged from the army by General Washington. Throughout her military career Deborah was admired for her bravery and complete dedication to the cause of freedom. In spite of strenuous campaigning and bitter confrontations with British troops, she never lost the military bearing distinguishing her as a fine soldier. A patriotic and intensely loyal American, Miss Sampson fought heroically and proudly for her country on the field of battle.

## *WOMEN REFORMERS IN AMERICA*

The role of women in American society reached a new dimension in the 19th Century. The impact of the Industrial Revolution and the experience gained in two wars saw an increasing awareness by women of needed reform. Women organized into groups and worked diligently for educational, political, legal, and social change. The Woman's Suffrage Movement, as it was called, gave rise to many eminent personalities who were progressive and brave in their thinking and courageous and forthright in their actions.

Jane Addams was one of the more noted pioneers of social reform in America during this time. Her practical common sense, superior executive ability, and unlimited energy enabled her to establish the leading social settlement in the United States, the Hull House, in Chicago. She took an

active interest in city administrative problems and played a prominent part in the formation of committees and clubs working for reform on community, state, and federal levels. Her books and articles had far reaching influence and covered a broad area dealing with social reform and justice. Because of her work for peace and human progress, Jane Addams was awarded the Nobel Peace Prize and thus distinguished herself as one of the most notable women of this era.

Dorothea Linde Dix was another American philanthropist whose interest and efforts opened the way for sweeping reforms in facilities for the mentally ill. Her services during the civil war as chief of the hospital nurses of The United States, and her success in establishing institutions for the insane throughout the country, place her among the noblest examples of humanity in all history.

Among prominent women leaders of this period, black women contributed significantly to the cause of justice in American society. Mary McLeod Bethune, noted educator, social reformer, and humanitarian, devoted herself totally and unselfishly to the equal rights movement. She was a woman of unusual vision who took every possible opportunity to carry on the crusade for a better way of life for underprivileged groups wherever she found them. An educator by profession, she established trade schools, founded a university, and fought relentlessly for a high quality public school system. Through her involvement in numerous councils and organizations across the nation, she worked unceasingly for negro rights and the rights belonging to all human beings. Young people adored her, and she was known as "the First Lady" of her race.

She was a close friend and ardent admirer of another "First Lady", Mrs. Eleanor Roosevelt. President Franklin Delano Roosevelt often made use of the wisdom and knowledge of Mrs. Bethune. He named her Director of Negro Affairs of the National Youth Administration; designated her Special Civilian Assistant to the first United States Women's Army Corps during World War II; and appointed her as a member of his "Black Cabinet" under the "New Deal" program.

Her intelligence, devotion, and deep sense of personal dedication to the human cause established Mrs. Bethune as one of the great black women leaders in the United States during this century.

## *WOMEN IN SCIENCE*

Over the years women have perhaps overcome more obstacles in the field of medicine than in any other scientific discipline. Until recent years women were excluded from laboratories and medical schools but, today, in this modern age of science, young women interested in research and medicine are finding increasing opportunities and chances for advancement. In the field of oceanography, for example, one of the new frontiers of scientific exploration, five women scientists were assigned as field researchers in the very successful Tektite II underwater survival experiment. The all-girl research team lived and worked for two weeks in a deep sea capsule settled at the bottom of Lameshur Bay in the Virgin Islands. The valuable data collected by this team on ocean environment are being used in still further studies, bringing the mystery of the sea ever closer to the understanding of man.

The dedication and success of pioneers such as Florence Nightingale and Marie Curie brought about an awareness and an appreciation of the contribution of women to the field of science.

Florence Nightingale was born in 1820 in the beautiful Italian city of Florence. The younger of two daughters of wealthy and socially prominent parents, she received the finest possible education, and was afforded the opportunity to travel extensively throughout the countries of Europe, and enjoyed a social and fashionable circle of friends. Although her life appeared to be complete and full, she became increasingly aware of the need for some deeper meaning. She was, at length, to discover her greatest fulfillment in the ministering and care of the sick. Her work in reviving a small, financially exhausted, and badly managed hospital for the aged in London gained her such recognition and praise, that in 1854 the British Secretary of War requested her aid in establishing medical facilities for the British army in the Crimea.

With a small band of 34 nurses, Miss Nightingale arrived on the Crimean frontier to find the most deplorable hospital conditions. Her unique talent for organizing, improvising, and managing enabled her to establish a highly efficient hospital complex. Throughout the war, her untiring efforts and progressive techniques helped reduce the death rate in the barracks hospital from sixty percent to a little above one percent—an amazing record of achievement. The lives of literally thousands of men during that terrible war were saved because of the fortitude, compassion, and total dedication of Florence Nightingale.

Upon her return to England, she wrote several books and papers on nursing techniques and hospital procedures, which not only furnished the plans for scores of new hospitals throughout Europe, but established the foundation upon which modern nursing principles are based. Florence Nightingale was truly worthy of the title, "Angel of the Crimea," given her by British soldiers during the war. A more dedicated, all-giving woman could not be found.

For unusual brilliance, talent, and scientific dedication, however, none can match that of Marie Curie, one of the foremost scientific geniuses the world has ever known. To her long hours of drudgery in the laboratory, and months and years of privation and sacrifice, is owed the discovery of radium, the precious substance so valuable to modern medicine.

While she was still a student of chemistry at the Sorbonne, in Paris, another scientist, Henri Becquerel, reported that he had observed a peculiar phenomenon in uranium salts: they emitted rays of an unknown nature. Fascinated by this discovery, Marie decided that she would begin experiments with uranium for her thesis. Little did she realize the extent to which she would search to achieve her goal. Nor did she realize how fantastic and important that success would be.

The unwavering dedication of Marie Curie to the pursuit of scientific truth enabled her to succeed in discovering one of the greatest boons known to scientific medicine. The new element she called radium proved to be two hundred and fifty million times more radioactive than uranium. Its use has been found invaluable in the treatment of cancer.

The Davy Medal, the Nobel Prize for Physics, and the Osiris Prize were among the many awarded in honor of her great discovery.

The discovery of radium brought about a new branch of medical science called radiumtherapy. For her work in establishing an international radium standard (radium quantity control), Marie Curie was again awarded the Nobel Prize. She was the first person to receive that honor twice.

Her workshop, now known as the Curie Laboratory of the Radium Insti-

tute, at the University of Paris, proudly carries on the work begun by this great woman of science.

### *WOMEN IN POLITICS*

Great and dedicated leaders with an unswerving belief in the democratic philosophy worked to build the United States upon the strongest possible foundation. Although the prejudice against women as politicians and statesmen was, until recent years, unyielding and dogmatic, women such as Eleanor Roosevelt and Clare Booth Luce attained unusual success in their political involvement. Eleanor Roosevelt was the wife of Franklin Delano Roosevelt, the thirty-second President of the United States. She was intensely interested in political and public affairs, and projected herself into the official life of the President and the nation. She worked unceasingly for a better way of life for all Americans, regardless of race, color, or creed, and spoke out boldly and with conviction in behalf of groups unable to obtain adequate representation. She championed Negro causes, worked untiringly for youth programs, encouraged the appointment of women to high positions of responsibility, and was considered one of the best informed and understanding citizens in the United States on the plight of the unemployed. A more competent and totally involved woman could not be found.

Mrs. Roosevelt was an invaluable support of the President throughout his career—offering observations, suggestions, and possible solutions to many of the problems affecting the nation. A woman of abounding energy, enthusiasm, and the deepest and most abiding love, Eleanor Roosevelt spent her life in the service of her county.

In 1953 Clare Booth Luce became the first American woman to hold a high diplomatic post when President Dwight D. Eisenhower appointed her Ambassador to Italy. Although her appointment gave rise to many skeptics in the masculine world of international diplomacy, Mrs. Luce proved herself equal to the difficult and demanding assignment. Her striking appearance, intelligence, and effectiveness in handling international affairs, won her the respect of the Italian people and convinced even her severest critics that brains and beauty indeed may go hand in hand.

Mrs. Luce was a woman of unusual enthusiasm and drive. Before her ambassadorial appointment, she had worked with outstanding success as an editor, playwright, and foreign correspondent. She had also served two terms in the United States Congress where she won a place on the House Military Affairs Committee and was an active member of the Atomic Energy Commission. Consequently, when she moved to Villa Taverna, her official residence in Rome, she brought to her job a thorough knowledge of world affairs and the determination to serve her country to the limit of her capaciy.

Throughout her life Mrs. Luce crusaded zealously, at home and abroad, in behalf of people struggling toward freedom. With resolute conviction, she expressed her ideas with unusual wisdom and wit in articles, books, and from the lecture platform. Her untiring efforts for peace and freedom for all men distinguished Mrs. Luce as one of the foremost women in the history of American politics.

### *THE CHALLENGE TODAY*

The history of women is a history of progress. Leaders discussed in this chapter and many others have worked untiringly in their individual professions to achieve complete acceptance of women on all levels. Because of their efforts, the opportunities for women today for higher education, training,

and experience are better than in any previous period in history. Because of the imagination, dedication and deligence of these great leaders, modern women have before them the most exciting and challenging future of any women in the history of the world.

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[2] & [3] MUIR, Charles S. *Women the Makers of History*. New York: Vantage Press, 1956.

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# GOLDA MEIR,
# PREMIER OF ISRAEL

Upon taking office as Premier of Israel in March of 1969, Mrs. Golda Meir joined a select group of women who have achieved the position of leader of a nation. Born in Russia, raised in the United States, and a citizen of Israel since 1921, Golda Meir is unique in many respects, but she is noted particularly for her lifetime devoted to the cause of the needs of the Jewish people. Her skill as a diplomat and her fame as a strong and aggressive leader are based on more than fifty years of experience in leading others to a better life. David Ben-Gurion, a former Premier of Israel, appointed Mrs. Meir as his Minister for Foreign Affairs in 1956, and he referred to her as "the only man in my Cabinet" because of her staunch support of his defense policy. Golda Meir has long been a worker for the Labor party of her nation, and has been a leading figure at many international Jewish and labor meetings. Standing as the head of the Jewish homeland which she helped to create, Mrs. Meir has devoted her energies to maintaining the national security while seeking ways to establish a lasting peace with the other countries of the Middle East.

Born Goldie Mabovitz in Kiev, the Ukraine, Russia, in 1898, Golda Meir learned personally about the fears of those who are deprived of their freedom. Her family moved to Milwaukee, Wisconsin in 1906, and Mrs. Meir attended public schools in that city and in Denver, Colorado. She was at the head of her class scholastically, and on graduation was class vice-president. She attended Milwaukee Teacher's Training College, graduating in 1917, and worked as a librarian. She became interested in problems of the Jewish people while in high school, and as a college student she was an eloquent street-corner speaker for the Zionist cause. When she finished college she gave up her dream of a teaching career and became a full-time staff member of the Zionist movement.

Golda Mabovitz was married in 1917 to Morris Myerson, a sign painter she met in Denver. In 1956 she adopted the name Meir, which is a Hebraicized version of Myerson. She has two children; her son is a concert cellist, and her married daughter lives on a kibbutz (collective farm) in Israel. After a meeting with David Ben-Gurion, who was in the United States to support the Zionist movement, she became convinced that her future lay with the Jewish homeland, and in 1921 Mrs. Meir and her husband moved to Israel and joined a kibbutz south of Nazareth, in a marshy, malaria-ridden region. In 1923 they moved to Tel Aviv, where Golda took an office job with Labor Federation, and thus began a life-long career of government service. After the first child was born Mrs. Meir had to take in laundry to make ends meet, and she looks back on those years as the hardest in her life.

In 1928 Golda Meir became secretary of the Women's Labor Council of Israel, a post she held for twenty years. During the 1930's Mrs. Meir went on a number of missions to Europe and the United

*Golda Meir*

States on behalf of the Jewish people of Israel. She was, additionally, on the executive boards of a number of different enterprises, including a medical fund, an aviation company, and a shipping concern. She was in charge of Jewish mutual aid programs, and chairman of the board of the Jewish medical services group. In 1940 she was named to head the Jewish political department, which dealt with foreign relations. During WW II Mrs. Meir served on the British War Economic Advisory Council, a natural follow-up to her work with the National Council, concerned with Jewish self-government under the British mandate. When, in 1946, the British arrested most of the Jewish executive agency members, Golda become acting head of the Jewish community in Palestine, occupying that post during the crucial period which preceded Israel independence. In 1948 she traveled to the United States and raised fifty million dollars to help finance Israel's independence movement. In that same year Mrs. Golda Meir was among the signers of the proclamation of independence of the state of Israel and became the only woman member of the country's first legislature.

Later in the year of 1948 Mrs. Meir became Israel's first minister to the Soviet Union, serving her country in Moscow for one year. The next year she was elected to serve in Israel's first Parliament and later in the year she took office as Minister of Labor and Social Insurance. She remained in that post until 1956, and was responsible for the country's first national insurance plan, and for providing housing and employment for thousands of new immigrants to the young nation. She remembers those years in the Labor Ministry as good times, pointing out that, "building modern housing for people who have lived in huts, even in caves, was something to live for." During the years Mrs. Golda Meir served as Minister for Foreign Affairs, beginning in 1956, she also served each year as chairman of the Israeli delegation to the U.N. General Assembly. For a two year period Golda left the demands of a government post and served as secretary general of the Israeli Labor Party, from 1966 to 1968, and then she decided to retire from public service. But of course her retirement was short-lived, for in 1969 her countrymen called on her executive skills again and made her the Premier.

She has, in the years as head of a young nation becoming a leader in the Middle East and the world, gained the reputation as one of the foremost leaders in world statesmanship. Her declared aim for the future is peace in the Middle East, to be achieved by the Israelis and Arabs themselves, but in pursuing that goal she has worked closely with world powers from all corners of the globe. She is obviously a popular leader with her own people as well, as demonstrated by the results of a 1970 public opinion poll in which 92% of the Israelis approved of her foreign policy. The Israeli people affectionately call Mrs. Meir "Our Golda." She is only five feet and five inches tall, but she is a giant in leadership ability, as proven for over half a century of hard work. Personally, Golda Meir is a simple person; she dresses in a plain manner, scorns makeup, and wears her gray hair in a bun. Her hobbies include reading and listening to her large collection of classical recordings. She is very fond of cooking, and at late Cabinet meetings often prepares omelets or chicken soup for her aides.

Mrs. Golda Meir, while a woman and a doting grandmother, is first and foremost the leader of her people and her nation, guiding them with skill and concern to be one of the most modern and strongest nations on the twentieth century scene.

CHAPTER 8

# WORLD LEADERSHIP IDEOLOGIES

Communism and democracy, socialism and capitalism—these terms and many like them are tossed around freely in any conversation about forms of government in the modern world. Simple definitions of these words come to mind very quickly; communism means Russia; democracy means the United States. Socialism may be associated with the British economic system, and of course capitalism is related to people who make a great deal of money. It doesn't take much serious thought to realize that there is more involved in the differences between these various ideas than the names of a few countries. But what concern is it to a JROTC student—what relationship is there in leadership education and ideologies of world governments? Herbert Hoover answered this question many years ago when he said, "The supreme purpose of history is a better world. Yesterday's records can keep us from repeating yesterday's mistakes." Knowledge is one of the desired attributes of a leader, and a familiarity with world governments and their leaders is a responsibility of every citizen. It follows, therefore, that you, as a MCJROTC cadet, have a valid need to know about those ideas which influence your world, for you are a citizen who is studying to improve yourself as a leader.

The ideas behind those key terms named in the preceding paragraph have shaped our world today. The forms of government which have evolved from the thoughts and writings of men who originated the primary ideologies of the modern world, and the accomplishments and goals of the government which advocate these ideologies, will determine to a large extent the future of this nation and all others in the world. Remember that one of the aspects of leadership is the situation, and the world situation will certainly have a definite influence on any national leader.

In the sections which follow in this chapter we will discuss the origin and development of communism and democracy, the two ideologies which guide the governing of most of the world's population. Even though the democratic and communist nations may not be engaged in an active war, there is, nonetheless, competition between them for the peoples of the world. The democratic peoples of the world believe that every individual should have the right to self-determination; his form of government should be the one which he feels serves his interests best. Communist leaders have an opposite opinion; they believe that a communist form of government should be established in every country in the world. The basic differences in these two beliefs evolve around the control of individuals and of property. Democracy places primary importance on the individual, his liberty and his welfare, and practices a form of government which is designed to serve the people it governs. Communism places primary importance on the state, rather than the individual. The state, said to represent the common interest, has priority in all matters, and those individuals within the state often must sacrifice for the good of the state.

It is, then, easy to understand that

the general difference between the major ideologies is the difference in individual freedom allowed. This study is a comparison of the ideas that underlie the two important systems—democracy and communism. Each system requires careful definition. In general, democracy is based on liberty or freedom of the individual. It includes freedom of religious belief, of conscience, of speech, and of individual action, except under such restraints as are necessary to preserve the rights of others or the good of the entire community. This political system normally operates as, and is also frequently called, representative constitutional government, and it usually provides for a large measure of free economic enterprise.

The opposing system—communism —today means complete governmental ownership and management of all means of production and the distribution of economic goods. It also includes the control of all political and social life by what the Communists call the dictatorship of the proletariate. Communism is thus a form of totalitarianism and authoritarianism.

An examination of the ideas underlying the two systems requires (1) a study of the nature of democracy and communism, (2) a study of the history of these two concepts and the leaders who contributed key ideas to each, and (3) a study of the political organizations necessary to carry out the aims of the two opposing doctrines.

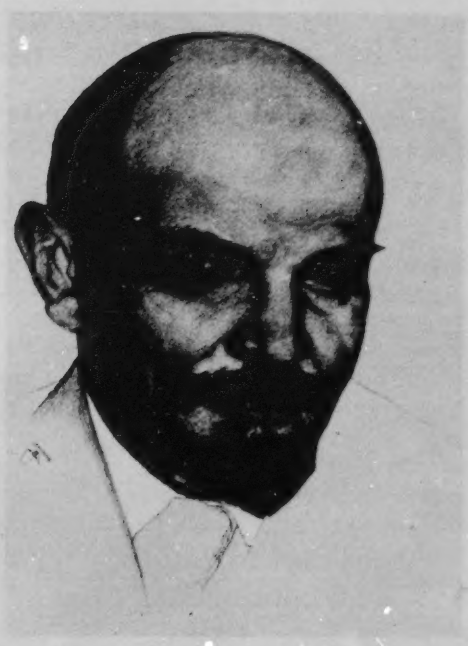
## *IDEOLOGIES IN CONFLICT*

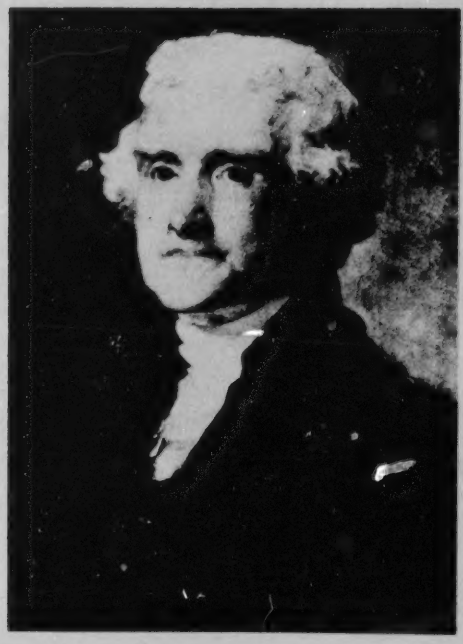
The struggle to be free is a war of conflicting ideas. These ideas underlie competing political and social systems, and form the primary issues of the latter twentieth century. Indeed, these ideas or concepts serve as the very foundations of each system. Some of these concepts are of ancient orgin. Others have a more recent history. An understanding of any political or social system requires an analysis and appraisal of the ideas behind the system.

The noted economist, John Maynard Keynes, comparing economic systems in *The Power of Ideas,* said: "It is ideas, not vested interests, which are dangerous for good or evil." This is, indeed, the truth. Ideas give birth to plans of action, to political and social programs, and to laws, codes, constitutions, and systems of justice. Ideas also precede conspiracies, revolutions, conquests of power, dictatorship, terrorism and slavery. A system supported by concepts that give due regard to humanity, morality, honesty, justice, moderation, and progress invariably is found to be a social order that is beneficial to the human race. On the other hand, a system founded on inhuman, immoral, dishonest, unjust, and cruel concepts invariably is found to be detrimental to all mankind.

We live today in a divided world. Two great competing political and social systems—democracy and communism—confront each other. The ideas or concepts that support democracy are diametrically opposite to the ideas upon which Soviet communism is founded. At the same time, the governments and other institutions that defend and preserve democracy are the exact opposite of the organs of a Communist regime. But, as already implied, the ideas of each system appeared first in point of time. The *institutions* and power machinery came later; they followed the ideas.

In the examination of the ideas underlying the conflicting systems of democracy and of communism, the fundamental guide should be intellectual honesty. If there are any "bad" or defective concepts within the system of democracy, they should be examined as carefully as the "good" ideas. This kind of analysis and appraisal is required, not merely in the interest of what scientists call





*The ideas of these two men, Lenin, on the left, and Jefferson, on the right, form the basis of the modern governments in Russia and the United States. Vladimir I. Lenin (1870-1924) was an activist, a politician who engineered the takeover of power in Russia. As the leader of the new Communist Party, Lenin insisted that all communist leaders must be trained professionals, banded together to lead the people as a whole. Thomas Jefferson (1743-1826) was a leader not only of his country, but of world democracy. He drafted the Declaration of Independence, and served as the nation's third president. Jefferson advocated free government with equal and exact justice for all men, and said that the American system of government, based on individual liberty and the rule of law, was destined to be "the strongest government on earth."*

objectivity or impartiality, but also as a matter of common honesty.

John Stuart Mill pointed out in his classic essay *On Liberty*, published in 1859, that no single philosophy or doctrine contains all the truth. Liberty means, among other things, the right of every man and woman to examine all doctrines in order to discover what truth there is in each of them. Much the same idea had been expressed by John Milton in his renowned *Areopagitica* (1644), which defended freedom of speech and religion. He said: "And though all the winds of doctrine were let loose to play upon the earth, so truth be in the field, we do injuriously by licensing (censoring) and prohibiting to misdoubt her strength. Let her and falsehood grapple; who ever knew truth put to the worse, in a free and open encounter." The same sentiment was expressed by Thomas Jeffereson in his inaugural address in 1801: "Error of opinion may be tolerated where reason is left free to combat it."

Free men and women will desire, and governments should not prohibit them, to seek the truth. The prohibition of free speech and press by government should be tolerated only in cases where doctrine seeks to overthrow the foundations of society by organized force and violence.

## *THE NATURE OF LIBERTY*

Throughout the history of civilization, men have had different ideas of

liberty. Plato and Aristotle associated liberty with justice or giving every man his due. The Epicureans thought of liberty as complete freedom to pursue pleasure and to avoid pain. The Stoics, and later St. Thomas Aquinas and John Locke, held that all men possess natural rights which derive from Natural Law. The exercise of these rights constitutes liberty. The Russian thinker, Tolstoi, compared "liberty" of some men with the freedom of the ox, "loving its own yoke." The great German philosopher, Immanuel Kant, held that liberty is connected with moral law. Human freedom involves the necessity of doing one's duty as dictated by the moral conscience. To do freely what one ought to do is the true expression of human dignity. In modern times, liberty is regarded as the freedom of the individual to think his own thoughts and to speak and act as he thinks proper, subject only to the restrictions necessary to preserve the liberty of other individuals and the good of society.

These are but a few of the many views regarding liberty. Before evaluating these different ideas, it will be helpful to examine the question whether the majority of men and women actually desire liberty rather than slavery. Is there a natural aspiration for liberty?

The desire for liberty in the Western World has been so prevalent that political philosophers in the seventeenth century made liberty the basis of their explanation for the origin of government. Thomas Hobbes, John Locke, and later Rousseau theorized that men first lived in a state of nature in which all men possessed complete liberty. The strong men began to oppress the weak, and the situation became intolerable. Thereupon, according to Locke, man entered into a contract, setting up a government to which they gave the right of judging disputes and the duty of protecting their natural liberties. There is no evidence that government originally arose in this fashion. However, the U.S. Constitution can be considered a historical example of such a contract. The purpose of the contract theory of government was not to explain how governments originated historically, but rather to announce the doctrine that the powers exercised by government could be made legitimate only by the consent of the governed.

Liberty has been dear to men for differing reasons. Acts of government that men readily accept in one society will be resented in another. Yet it is a safe generalization that men everywhere desire to be free to do those things and think those thoughts which they believe are necessary to a meaningful life. Sometimes men have not been very much concerned with political liberty, but always there is some kind of liberty that is dear to them.

### *THE DEVELOPMENT OF MARXISM*

One man who desired liberty during the 19th century was Karl Marx. He moved from his native Germany, to France, Belgium, and England in search of freedom to publish his ideas. Marx was a political economist, and he is as important to the communist ideology as is Mohammed to the Moslem religion. The two great ideologies active in today's world are communism and democracy, for more than 80% of the world's peoples live under one of the two systems. Imperative to the understanding of both of these systems of government is a knowledge of the men and the documents which served as the beginning for each of the beliefs. We will look first at communism, the one we in the western world know least about, and then we'll review the origins and development of democratic societies. The only logical beginning for any study of communism is with Karl Marx, for his writings served as the seedbed from which the current empire of communism has grown.

Of all the makers of socialist systems in a century that spawned so many of them, Karl Marx stood head and shoulders above the rest. Neither Mohammed nor Martin Luther had more influence on the course of history than Marx. On the eve of the February Revolution of 1917 in Russia, the total number of Bolsheviks, Russian revolutionaries led by Lenin, was an estimated 23,600. The heirs of that small band now rule over a billion people, 40 percent of the world's population. Whatever one thinks about Marx and Marxism, the immense importance of the man is unquestionable. The heavy imprint of Marxism has been placed on history, economics, and sociology.

Karl Marx was born in Treves, Prussia, on 5 May 1818. He was the son of a prosperous lawyer who dropped his Judaism for Protestantism two years before Karl was born. Karl was baptised a Protestant in 1824. Young Marx went to the local High School and later studied at the universities of Berlin and Bonn. His father persuaded him to study law, but after his father's death, he switched to philosophy and history. Soon after receiving a Doctor of Philosophy degree from the University of Jena, he got involved in politics.

In 1842 Marx got a chance to influence politics when he became editor of a radical democratic newspaper in Cologne. He soon saw a close connection between economic problems and political problems, and he developed a life-long interest in economics. But his attacks on the Christian religion and the Prussian monarchy led to the banning of his newspaper in Germany, and he departed for Paris. In Paris Marx made an exhaustive study of the French Revolution, and in 1844 he met Friedrich Engles. Marx and Engles became close friends and co-workers until Marx's death. Most of the writings of Marx and Engles were concerned with the class struggle between the property owners, the *bourgeois*, and the working class, the *proletariats*, Marx's open attacks on the Prussian monarch led to his being expelled from France at the request of Prussia. Marx moved to Brussels, Belgium, where he was joined by Engles. Together they produced a treatise on their materialistic concept of history. This work set forth the premise that the production of material goods conditions the whole of social life. On this premise they elaborated the development of the class struggle and its inevitable consequence: the proletarian revolution and the advent of communism.

Marx was more than an ivory-tower philosopher. He was a man who craved action, who wanted to help along the "inevitable" changes he thought he foresaw. While in Brussels he joined the Communist League, and this group, at its Second Congress, held in London in 1847, gave him the task of defining their progam in a condensed form. The result was the *Communist Manifesto*, first published in early 1848, on the eve of the rash of revolutions that broke out all over Europe.

**Communist Manifesto.** Few documents in history have been so solidly packed with explosive ideas as was this little pamphlet of some forty pages. In terse prose, so unlike most of Marx's work, it enunciated a general philosophy of history, analyzed European society, and sounded a clarion call for revolution. Fom its opening sentence, "A spectre is haunting Europe—the spectre of Communism," to its concluding exhortation, "Workingmen of all countries, unite!" the *Communist Manifesto* is a document supercharged with emotional appeal. Probably there is no better summary than the following extract from Engel's Preface to a reissue of the pamphlet in 1888:

The "Manifesto" being our joint production, I consider myself bound to state that the fundamental proposition which forms its nucleus, belongs to Marx. That proposition is: that in every historical epoch, the prevailing mode of economic production and exchange, and the social organization necessarily following from it, form the basis upon which is built up, and from which alone can be explained, the political and intellectual history of that epoch; that consequently the whole history of mankind (since the dissolution of primitive tribal society, holding land in common ownership) has been a history of class struggles, contests between exploiting and exploited, ruling and oppressed classes; that the history of these class stuggles forms a series of evolution in which, now-a-days, a stage has been reached where the exploited and oppressed class—the proletariat—cannot attain its emancipation from the sway of the exploiting and ruling class—the bourgeoisie—without, at the same time, and once and for all, emancipating society at large from all exploitation, oppression, class distinctions and class struggles.

In 1848 a revolution broke out in Italy, and soon France, Germany, and even Hungary were swept by popular revolts. Marx, eager to play an active role in politics, hurried from Brussels to Paris and then to Germany, taking part in revolution in each of these places. The revolution in Germany sputtered to a miserable conclusion, and Marx was arrested and tried, but he was acquitted. He then made his way to London, where he lived for the rest of his life.

In London the Marx family lived in utter destitution, often near outright starvation, from 1849 until around 1860, when Engels began to subsidize the family. During this period Marx was hard at work on his major work, *Capital*, and he was ransacking the great British Museum Library in search of materials to prove his thesis.

The first volume of *Capital* was published in 1867, and few books have influenced the course of history more. Within a decade it was translated into Russian, and the seeds were planted for one of the most fateful movements in world history. The German Socialists soon adopted the thesis elaborated in *Capital*, and it remained the Bible of the German Socialists until the 1950's. The second and third volumes were edited by Engels after Marx's death.

Marx never gave up political activity, however, and in 1864 he founded the International Working Men's Association, usually referred to as the First International. This organization was intended to unify the various socialist movements then flourishing in Europe. The first International became a fiasco because of antagonism between leaders of the movement. In 1876, it withered away.

Disappointment over the failure of the First International and the grinding poverty that he had endured in the 1850's were too much for Marx. He died in 1883, still trying to finish *Capital*. It was a futile attempt, however. Marx lacked the dynamic vigor that had characterized his youth and middle years, and it remained to Engels to finish the work.

**Marxian Philosophy, Economics, and Politics.** Marxism is a combination of several currents of Western European thought in the early nineteenth century. From the German philosopher Hegel, Marx borrowed the idea that the substance of history was spiritual, and that all history had been a result of the progressive development of the world mind. Hegel's philosophy described history as a process through which an original tendency (thesis) meets an opposing tendency (antithesis), resulting in a new movement in a

different direction (synthesis). Marx adapted this popular concept to serve his own purposes.

From the French Socialists Marx absorbed many of his ideas about a "Utopian society" based on a more equitable distribution of wealth. The French socialists felt that although the French Revolution had resulted in some political liberty, it had been in favor of the property owners and not the working classes. They felt that economic equality was necessary to mitigate some of the worst evils of the dominant capitalist system. Some felt that because of the rapid development of technology and industry in the industrial revolution, society should be directed by an elite of industrialists, financiers, and technicians; and this elite should enforce a more equitable distribution of wealth—that is, socialism. The inevitability of industrial development and an equitable division of wealth thus became ingredients of Marxism.

Marx spent all of his later life in London, where he became a student of the British political economists. From Adam Smith he borrowed the concept of labor as a source of wealth, but he did not agree with Smith's ideas about a self-regulating market where prices (and profits) are determined by supply and demand. Smith maintained that if the government kept its clumsy hands out of the economy and monopolies were restrained, the market mechanism would operate smoothly to the benefit of all. In Smith's view the competitive market would keep prices within reason, and the reinvestment of profits would result in a continually expanding productivity of industry. This is the basis of the capitalist system of free enterprise.

The three intellectual sources from which Marx derived his system of thought were fused, distorted, and even inverted in the process of being changed into Marxism. The idealism of Hegel became Marxist materialism, the Utopian goals of the French socialists were transformed into the myth of the classless society, and the laws of the British political economists became the instruments by which the bourgeoisie unmercifully exploited the proletariat. Such was the strange alchemy acheived by Marx.

A thorough analysis of Marxism would not necessarily be useful in understanding communism, for the Soviet leaders take only those things from Marx's teachings that serve their purposes. Lenin, Stalin, Khrushchev, and the present Soviet leadership have all added their own interpretations to Marxist doctrine. This section attempts to give in capsule form only that part of Marxism which helped to shape the doctrine now used by the Soviet leaders.

Marx and Engels left to posterity a large body of teachings, some of which are contradictory, some ambiguous, and some sheer nonsense. It is not surprising that their heirs have been forced to supplement, to explain, and even to hide parts of the heritage. To understand how Marx's ideas are used by the Soviet leaders today, let us summarize Marx's philosophy, his economic theories, and his political program.

**Marxist Philosophy.** Marxism is a materialistic philosophy. It states clearly that the world around us exists independently of our senses and that, moreover, matter is the *only* reality. Everything can be reduced to matter, even ideas being derived through material processes. Marx stated explicitly in the Preface to *Capital* that an idea is nothing other than material that has been transposed and translated inside the human mind. Marx claimed that man and his material environment are in a functional relationship. In other words, they react upon each other. He asserted that the form of any society is the result of its organization of production, which he called its division of

labor. As a society's production processes become more technological, this division of labor becomes a class struggle, that is, one class exploits the labor of the other, and the exploited class comes to resent it. According to Marx, this class struggle is the motivation force of historical development.

Marxism teaches that material production is the foundation of social life, for men must eat, drink, and cloth themselves. At a certain stage of technological development these productive activities lead to the division of labor, or classes. The nature of the class struggle is exploitative, and a constant struggle ensues, which explodes into revolution. It is these revolutions that push history forward. The ultimate end is socialism.

**Marxist Economics.** Marx felt that the worker was doomed to subsistence wages under the capitalist system, and if the worker did demand higher wages, there were always lots of unemployed to take his job. Even if there was a shortage of workers during a boom period and wages did rise through competition, the costs of production would also go up and bring the boom to an end. Marx felt that the root of the evil was the large slice of the profits that went to the owners of industry.

Marx maintained that all the value of a commodity was the amount of labor involved in its production. But the workers only got a part of the price the commodity sold for in the market place. For example, if the worker toiled 10 hours and it took only 5 hours of his labor to pay his wages, then the additional 5 hours' labor went to enrich his employer. This is Marx's famous theory of "surplus value."

In a free market economy Marx envisioned a situation wherein competition would force capitalists to use more machines and less labor. This competition would result in falling profits until only a few successful capitalists would survive. The result would be a group of monopolies. Thus the capitalists would become fewer and richer, and the workers more numerous and poorer. This is the famous "law of increasing misery." These exploited workers thus would have little to lose if they revolted.

Marx was on solid ground in pointing out that labor was getting a niggardly share under the laissez-faire economy of his period. But in the following hundred years the capitalists were more perceptive than Marx had anticipated, and the system did not meet the doom he predicted. In fact, industry showed a phenomenal growth in productivity. With this growth workers have received an even larger share of the profits. The law of increasing misery turned out to be sheer mythology in the twentieth century, but Soviet economists still try to apply the law to the capitalist economy of today.

**Marxist Politics.** Marx never really took a good look at what should follow the "inevitable" revolution and the establishment of socialism. For one thing, different nations were in different stages of development at the time he was forming his political philosophy. In some nations the bourgeoisie was still the progressive element fighting the active remnants of feudalism. In these nations, the proletariat would have to combine with the bourgeois elements to bring capitalism to the stage where socialism would be possible. This idea of a two-stage revolution led Marx's heirs into many a bitter dispute.

After the bourgeois state had been crushed, but before the Communist classless society had emerged, there would be an interim "dictatorship of the proletariat." Marx was extremely vague about the composition of the dictatorship and its length of rule. Thus Lenin and Stalin later had freedom in filling in this gap. Once this vague interim dictatorship of the proletariat

has thoroughly eliminated the bourgeois remnants that survived the initial revolution, then society will enter its classless Communist state, a stage that has no end.

The state, in Marx's scheme of things is simply the instrument through which the ruling class maintains its control of the means of production. The victory of the proletariat and the establishment of the classless society will make the state unnecessary, for there will be nobody to exploit anybody else, and the state will simply "wither away." This theory of the withering away of the state has caused Marx's adherents no end of embarrassment, and the embarrassment will increase as the Soviet leaders claim to get nearer to the classless Communist stage.

## *COMMUNIST GOALS AND METHODS*

The Union of Soviet Socialist Republics, Russia, is not the only Communist nation, but it is the largest, most powerful nation to adapt the ideas of Karl Marx and develop the teachings of Marx into a system of government. It is also the first nation to actively promote communism in other parts of the world, so some understanding of the objectives and tactics of Soviet Russia is necessary for a comprehension of world communism. Armed with the theories of Marx, Trotsky and Lenin led the 1917 revolution in Russia.

In that same year a young librarian in Peking, China, named Mao Tse-tung, read the works of Marx and Lenin, and he formed the Chinese Communist Party and began to practice the theories of Lenin. Through the efforts of the Chinese Communists communism has spread through Asia, Latin America, and Africa. In Russia Joseph Stalin consolidated the power gained by Lenin and put together the modern European Communist Bloc, and influenced countries in the Middle East. In the next section we will discuss the goal of Russian Communism, and explore some of the methods utilized by the Communist Party.

**Communist Objectives.** The program adopted by the 22nd Congress of the Communist Party of the Soviet Union in October, 1961, proclaimed communism to be "the bright future of all mankind." Such an audacious and pretentious claim to speak for all mankind would be humorous were it not for the immense military power behind this claim. Throughout the noncommunist world there is a growing awareness that communism's boast that it is winning the minds and loyalties of men and will eventually dominate the world cannot be taken lightly.

To date, the Communist Party is active in some 70 noncommunist countries. Each of these conspiratorial, combat organizations has the same objectives: (1) to confuse, weaken, and divide noncommunist opposition; (2) to infiltrate positions of power and influence; (3) to use these positions to subvert and destroy noncommunist institutions; and (4) to seize total state power at some propitious moment in history by any means possible and thereby establish the dictatorship of the Communist Party in the name of the proletariat, or working class.

The historic and primary goal of communists is to abolish all existing forms of noncommunist governments throughout the world and to establish communism in their place. The general creed of communists everywhere is "The Communist Manifesto," written by Karl Marx and Friedrich Engels and published in 1848. This document blueprints the "historic mission" of the working class for the seizure of power, the establishment of the dictatorship of the proletariat, the abolition of free enter

prise, and the formation of a new, international communist society.

**Exploitation of Intellectuals.** The communist movement has been particularly astute, alert, and quick to capitalize on statements made by intellectuals if these statements happen to parallel the Communist Party line. Such statements are given wide circulation in the communist press and are cited by communist leaders as "evidence" of broad noncommunist suppport and endorsement on specific issues.

The tactic of exploiting a prominent person has always been a common communist practice. As large an array of notable and distinguished persons as possible is assembled to serve as window dressing for a communist front, campaign, or activity for the simple reason that the names of a number of educators, clergymen, scientists, writers, artists, and other well-known individuals attached to any communist front or activity will make an impression on the unwary and the unsuspecting. The names of influential people associated with such activities are used to attract and enlist the sympathy and support of ordinary people. Prominent persons acting as sponsors, as officers, and as members of committees give such communist fronts, campaigns, and activities an outward appearance of trust and credibility which they would not otherwise possess. For this reason, intellectual leaders are regularly and assiduously solicited to serve as officers and sponsors of communist enterprises and projects.

To further the cause of communism, noncommunists are relied upon to do the work that communists themselves are unable to do. Thus, the front organization was conceived and created to serve as an auxiliary or "transmission belt" of the Communist Party. Communist front organizations are established in order to mobilize and activate intellectuals, students, minority groups, labor, women, and other important segments of our population.

Front organizations have become an integral and vital part of the communist pattern of action throughout the world. In the 1930's and 1940's particularly, communists established a network of communist front organizations designed to reach and influence large numbers of people out of all proportion to the actual membership of communist parties.

Through their fronts, communists try to enlist the support of and to manipulate a variety of noncommunists—progressives, liberals, reformists, pacifists, humanitarians, scientific humanists, etcetera. Power in and control of a front are secured and maintained by communist occupancy of the key positions of the organization. Pains are taken to conceal the communist character of front organizations. They are given innocuous and patriotic-sounding names and seemingly legitimate and meritorious programs.

**Exploitation of Science.** Communists use propaganda techniques to make it appear that science is on their side also. Science commands respect and solidifies acceptance and belief among many people. Communists are forever emphasizing that communism is based on the principles of "scientific socialism" which are both "immutable and infallible." This "scientific" base, they insist, makes communism infinitely superior to capitalism and to all other systems of government which have no "scientific" foundation.

The so-called "scientific" base and outlook of communism have been given considerable propaganda appeal by Soviet scientific and technological accomplishments of recent years. The propaganda impact of Soviet successes in outer space has convinced many people throughout the world not only that the Soviets have surpassed the United

States scientifically, but also that science is on the side of communism.

**Exploitation of Youth.** With its natural enthusiasm and optimism, youth is a vital force in the ferment of current world affairs. The vigor and vitality of young people have always constituted a dynamic force of immense power. Directed into constructive channels, it can be an immeasurable force for good. Manipulated into destructive channels, it can create havoc. The success of the communists in turning peaceful demonstrations into violent outbursts is a well-recorded historical fact in many free nations.

The series of communist-sponsored World Youth Festivals illustrates another aspect of communist activities aimed at influencing future leaders everywhere. These festivals, held every two years since 1947, are ostensibly nonpolitical affairs which anyone can attend. Actually, they are propaganda spectacles organized to display communist cultural, scientific, and economic achievements. Their underlying purpose is, of course, to mobilize the youth of the world in the case of communism.

**Bloc Economic Competition.** The Soviet's economic competition with noncommunist nations is not confined to an increase in industrial production. There is also the all-out economic warfare being waged by the Communist Bloc in an effort to capture markets around the world. Of course, the expanding industrialization does give the communist nations an ever-increasing capability in the field of foreign trade and aid.

A number of trade objectives govern the Communist Bloc in its economic relations with the free world: (1) to supply its economy, especially the industrial-military base, with imports that help the Bloc to become more powerful and less dependent on the noncommunist world; (2) to drive wedges between noncommunist nations at every opportunity; (3) to increase the reliance of noncommunist countries on the Communist Bloc for markets and supplies, thereby making the free world more vulnerable to communist pressure; and (4) to prevent, by trade and credit manipulation, any defections of neutral or uncommitted nations to the side of the West.

In its competition with the free world, there is the intention of the Communist Bloc to use every means at its disposal to strengthen its economy while, at the same time, trying to force the collapse of the economy of the United States. Communist agents never relax their efforts to obtain information —both open and secret—pertaining to manufacturing techniques and industrial processes in this country.

**Dogma of Historical Inevitability.** While constantly attacking all phases of noncommunist living, communists insistently offer another philosophical method to take its place throughout the world. History is held out as ostensible proof of the validity of communist dogma.

History, communists claim, is a materialistic process, a record of class struggle in which the economic factor determines the substance of all social institutions—political, legal, educational, religious, and the like. According to communist doctrine, noncommunist governments and economic systems are destined to be destroyed by an expanding communism, which, by its very nature, is inevitable.

Thus, communists make it appear that history is on their side. They repeatedly refer to their "historic mission," by which, of course, they mean the violent seizure of power, the establishment of the dictatorship of the proletariat, the abolition of capitalism, and the formation of a new, communist society. The historic device is used

when communists declare that capitalism is now in its final stage and "is historically slated to go" regardless of its "desperate struggle to survive."

**Dogma of Good and Evil.** A notable distinction of communist propaganda is its simple, positive, self-righteous tone. This black-and-white technique in communist propaganda strives to neutralize the opposition by invariably painting communists as 100 percent right and their enemies as 100 percent wrong. Communism is always depicted as "good" and leading to peace and progress. Capitalism, on the other hand, is invariably depicted as "evil" and leading to war and depression. Communist propagandists constantly contrast their purported concern for public welfare in communist nations with alleged neglect of it in noncommunist countries, specifically the United States.

The black-and-white contrast is particularly evident in the communist peace theme of recent years. Communists invariably contrast their own image of a "peace-loving" Soviet Union, working ceaselessly and patiently toward universal peace, with the image they have created of the United States as an "aggressive, fire-eating, warmongering" nation, "feverishly" preparing to unleash World War III.

**Communist Tactics.** In the application of tactics, communists are uninhibited by any legal, moral, or ethical considerations. Any action—whether it is legal or illegal, moral or immoral, peaceful or violent, open or covert—becomes automatically justified if it advances the cause of communism. Communists have never shown any hesitancy in employing such tactics as armed aggression and guerrilla warfare, individual and mass terrorism, abrogation of treaties, espionage, sabotage, infiltration, and the "united front" to promote and gain their ends.

It must be emphasized that communists believe that no wholly peaceful solution of the struggle between the communist and noncommunist worlds is possible and that the conflict can terminate only in the unconditional annihilation of one or the other. For this reason, Communist Party members are constantly reminded that whatever temporary compromises, alliances, or tactical retreats the Party might be called upon to make, they must never entertain any ideas of permanent reconciliation with noncommunists.

**Revolution of Rising Expectations.** The cause of the present plight of mankind is social in origin, because in our time more than one half of the people in the world are susceptible to diseases which could be prevented through better living conditions. More than one half of the people in the world do not have enough to eat to insure a merely adequate diet. More than one half of the people in the world do not have sufficient education to improve and develop themselves. More than one half of the people in the world hold jobs which are neither economically rewarding nor personally satisfying. More than one half of the people in the world do not have the opportunity to effectively apply sound religious and moral principles. At the same time that more than one half of the people in the world are living a substandard existence, the other half are enjoying the fruits of the spectacular advances brought about by education and science.

It would be completely unnatural, then, for the one half of the world which is experiencing a substandard existence—and which, at the same time, is acutely aware of the benefits of modern industrial civilization—to resign itself fatalistically to its present low level of social, economic, and political development. The traditional fatalism of the people in the under-

developed nations is now being swept away by what has been described as the revolution of rising expectations.

This is not, in its origin, a communist-inspired revolution. But, the communists have recognized its potential for their own advantage. It is a revolution rooted in poverty and misery and nurtured by the impact of contacts with more highly developed countries. It is characterized by the growing realization that, in this age of science and technology, there is no longer any need for one half of the world's people to spend their lives in poverty and misery.

This revolution of rising expectations underlies the surging tide of nationalism which is sweeping Asia, Africa, the Middle East, and Latin America. It explains the almost obsessive desire for immediate industrialization, regardless of whether or not it is presently economically practical, as a tangible symbol of full acceptance in a 20th century society. It spurs the drive for immediate improvement in educational opportunities, living conditions, medical care, and economic progress. In short, the revolution of rising expectations is impatient with the old order and is defying the laws of time by attempting to compress centuries of normal development into a few short years.

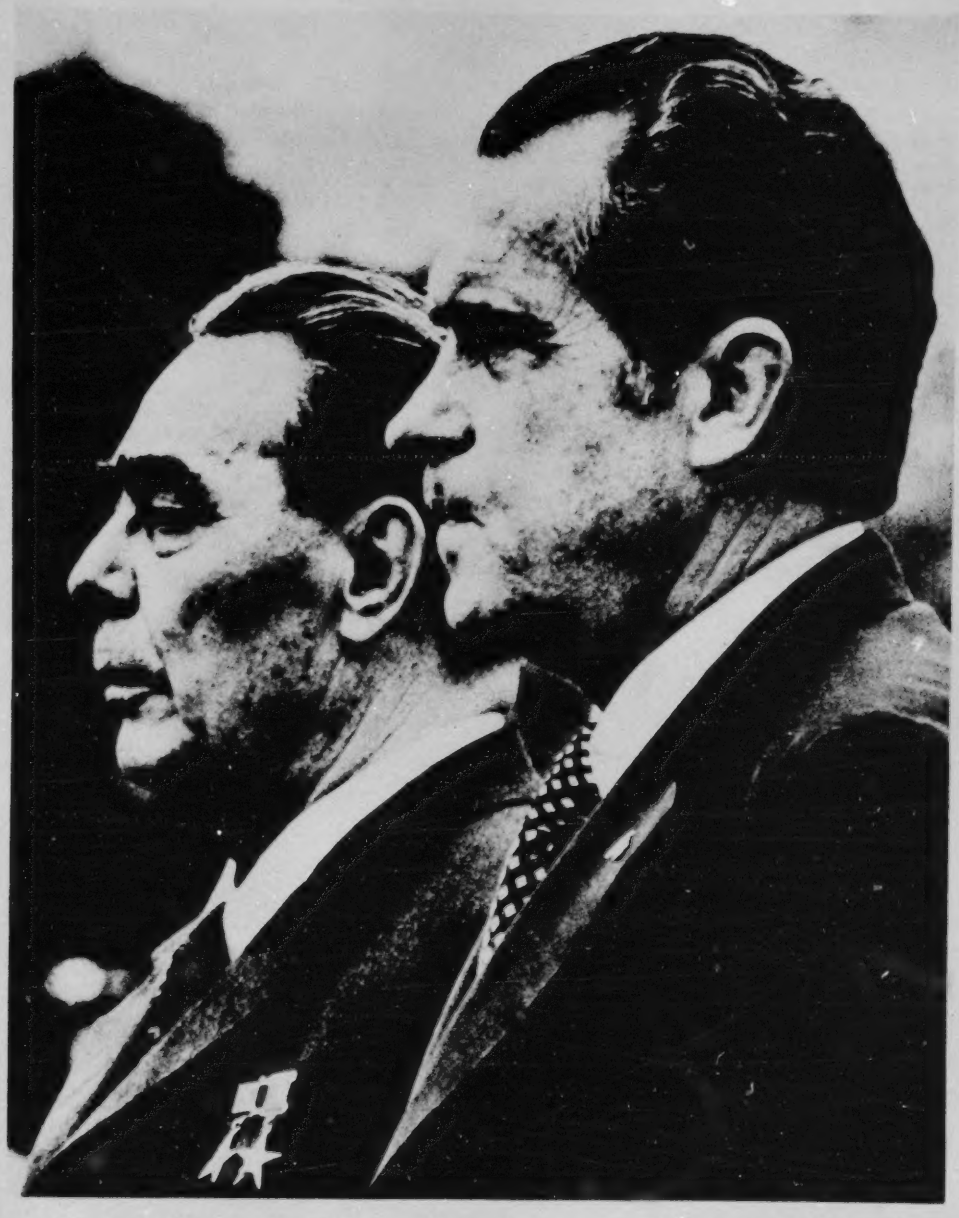
There is no doubt—whether we like it or not—that our world is in the throes of an upheaval which, when viewed in the perspective of history, will make the social transformations of society which characterized such eras as the Renaissance and the Industrial Revolution seem like minor readjustments.

The communists are well-aware of the almost desperate efforts of the underdeveloped nations to lift themselves overnight into the 20th century. The communist nations are exerting every effort to subvert these legitimate aspirations in order to bring these emerging nations into the communist fold. The inexperience in self-government and the precarious economic situation of most of these emerging nations expose them to serious internal and external dangers.

Taking advantage of this natural ferment, communists use every means at their disposal in an effort to convince these underdeveloped nations that communism is the answer to all of their problems. The communists hold up the Soviet Union as the model for rapid industrialization. They attempt to portray the communist nations as champions of the right of all nations to choose their own destinies. They extend alluring offers of trade on favorable terms, expert technical assistance, low-interest loans, extensive military equipment, and university scholarships. They purport to be in the vanguard of social justice.

**Communist Confrontation of the United States.** In its drive to seize total power, international communism directs its efforts against the entire noncommunist world. But the United States is given special attention, since it is communism's strongest adversary. This confrontation is aimed at a number of specific and vital spheres of activities and interests such as: military, political, psychological, philosophical, scientific, educational, sociological, and economic.

These activities and interests present communists with numerous important propaganda opportunities and advantages. They have consistently, expertly, and effectively exploited these opportunities to influence, condition, and manipulate people's minds in order to make them receptive to certain concepts and aims. Communists gear their propaganda to capitalize on the basic emotions, prejudices, traits, attitudes, and weaknesses inherent in people. The



*United States President Richard Nixon, right, and Soviet party leader Leonid Brezhnev stand together on the White House lawn as the national anthems of their two countries are played. These leaders of the world's two largest democratic and communist governments met in Washington in June of 1973 for summit talks. (Photo credit World Wide Photos)*

*In February of 1972 the leader of the world's most populous nation, the People's Republic of China, met with the leader of the world's most powerful nation, the United States of America, demonstrating the improved communication between the leading world ideologies. President Nixon is shown here shaking hands with Chairman Mao Tse-tung, head of the Chinese Communist Party, in Peking during that historic meeting. (Photo credit World Wide Photos)*

desired effects are achieved by the application of a variety of propaganda techniques or devices to (1) arouse interest, (2) manipulate the issue, (3) establish proof, and (4) neutralize the opposition.

Psychologically, the communists confront us with the inevitability and invincibility of communism. In ceaselessly reiterating these twin themes, communists endeavor to instill an attitude of defeatism and resignation into noncommunists. At the same time, every incident which can be construed as a communist success is advanced by propaganda organs as established proof that the "forward march of socialism is irresistible."

Communist propaganda is used to condition noncommunists to the view that communism is all-powerful and all-embracing. It urges everybody to join the communist movement, which it depicts as "the wave of the future."

**Meeting the Problem.** The total communist offensive against the United States is formidable. This threat is of such magnitude that no phase of it can be minimized. But the greatest danger posed by communism is

the threatened loss of freedom and the subsequent destruction of the free intellect and free will with which mankind has been endowed.

It is obvious that the threat of communism must be met and repelled. Any response to the challenge it presents which is based on hysteria, alarmism, extremism, or vigilante action will do infinitely more harm than good. The only intelligent, effective answer lies in a long-range, positive program based on a realistic, rational assessment of the danger. The future requires that we employ a constructive approach in developing the necessary course of action in opposing and countering communism.

## *THE DEVELOPMENT OF DEMOCRACY*

One easy way to define democracy is to simply turn around the above statement about communism. Modern democracy, practicing the capitalistic economic system, (1) has no government ownership and management of business (2) bases its economy on the ownership of private property; and (3) jealously protects the individual freedom of its people. The term "democracy" is as old as the concept of individual liberty for men, and a government fashioned on democratic ideals has a long history. We have seen the relatively short history of communism, beginning with Marxist ideals and developing into present Soviet tactics, let us now look at the development of democratic government from ancient Greece to the twentieth century.

The word "democracy" has come to symbolize the good in the mid-twentieth century world, so much so that even those governments with nothing in common with the traditional ideals of democracy have adopted the word. The Soviet Union, for example, prides itself on its "democratic" system of centralized government, and her satellites are known as "People's Democratic Republics." The word was used in Greece in the classical period, roughly six hundred years before Christ. It derives from the Greek *demos* (people) and *kratos* (rule), thus meaning "the rule of the people." If this meaning of the word is held to, there is little trouble in deciding which of the modern nations have the genuine right to call themselves democracies.

**Democracy in Ancient Greece.** Democracy as an actual philosophy of government dates back to Greece of the sixth century, B.C. Its heyday was in Athens in the fifth and fourth centuries B.C. The Athenian city-state was small enough, both in population and area, to enable all the citizens to assemble in the market place and vote upon the vital issues of the day. The Greeks attributed their victories over the Persians at Marathon and Salamis to the superiority of the free citizen over the slave warrior of the Persian king. Greek literature, philosophy, and art of the period played up the theme of democracy as the ideal form of government.

A vivid expression of the Greek ideal of democracy was stated by Pericles in his "Funeral Address" delivered in 430 B.C. to eulogize men who had died fighting against Sparta. Portions of that address follow:

> Our government is called a democracy because it is in the hands of the many and not the few. Our laws secure equal justice for all in their private disputes, and our public opinion welcomes and honors talent in every kind of achievement, not for any sectional reason, but on grounds of excellence alone. And as we give free play to all in our public life, so we carry the same spirit into our daily relations among ourselves. We are not angry with our neighbor if he does what he likes, nor do we put on

sour looks at him which, though harmless, are unpleasant.

We love beauty without extravagance, and wisdom without unmanliness. We employ wealth, not as a means to vanity and ostentation, but as an opportunity for service. To acknowledge poverty is no disgrace; the true disgrace is in making no effort to overcome it.

An Athenian citizen does not neglect public affairs because he is too concerned with his private business. We regard a person who takes no interest in public affairs, not as "quiet" but as useless.

History was soon to prove for the first time that democracy, even in its purest form, is perishable. For a number of reasons the enthusiasm for democracy in Athens started to ebb by the fourth century B.C. The two greatest philosophers of ancient Greece, Plato and Aristotle, did not think much of democracy as a form of government. Plato condemned democracy because he did not believe the mass of the people was capable of self government. He believed that government should be entrusted to a small, elite group selected for their superior mental ability and moral character, and specially trained for the duties of government. In Plato's *Republic,* he proposed a ruling class made up of "philosopher kings," who would rule independent of the wishes of the people. Plato's pupil, Aristotle, also believed that the greater responsibilities of government belonged to the educated and the wealthy. Nevertheless, he did believe in the fundamental rights of the individual and felt that the voice of the people must be heard by government. Aristotle's major contribution to modern democracy was his advocacy of the rule of law as opposed to the rule of men. This idea survives today in the Western tradition of constitutional government.

As Athens attempted to expand its city-state into an empire, new problems of government arose. The political structure of the city-state was not adequate to govern an empire. Officials were generally elected to one-year terms, and there were no parliaments, cabinets, or permanent officials. As new territories came under control of the city-state, Athens was slow to grant the rights of citizenship to people outside Athens. Quite naturally, these new subjects did not have much zeal for fighting for the empire.

The Peloponesian War between Athens and Sparta wrecked the Athenian State. In contrast to Athens, Sparta was a highly disciplined, authoritarian police state. The citizen of Sparta owed complete allegiance to the state. His highest calling was to be a soldier, and he considered military valor the highest virtue. He showed no pity for the physically weak or the mentally deficient. His individual rights were subordinate to the authority of the state, and his every thought and action was carefully controlled by the state. Just as Athens was the forefather of modern democracy, Sparta was the ancestor of modern totalitarianism, although she did not go to the extremes of violence and cruelty demonstrated by some modern police states.

**Democracy in Rome.** The Romans were not so interested in, or adept at, formulating philosophy and doing other abstract thinking as were the Greeks. They were much more interested in matters of a down-to-earth nature, especially organization, law and building. The Roman conquest of the Mediterranean and its hinterlands in Europe, North Africa, and the Middle East can be attributed largely to this genius for organization and building. The Roman Legions were the epitome of military prowess and organization for over five hundred years, and the Roman con-

struction genius made possible a system of roads that facilitated the movement of those legions to expand the empire.

Although the Romans did not embrace democracy with the fondness of the Athenians, they did experiment with some elements of democracy. In the days of the Roman Republic and even in the early days of the Empire, a democracy of a sort existed in most of Italy. The heart of this democratic system was the city of Rome, and its power was concentrated in a minority of wealthy families, the *patricians*. From this group of aristocrats were elected two officials, called *consuls*, to serve one year terms as heads of state, with coequal status. The consuls were elected by an *Assembly* made up of all the fighting men of the state, but dominated by the patricians. Rome of this period was called a *republic*, because the people (the public) had a voice in choosing their leaders. The major power of the government, however, rested in the *Senate*, an advisory body made up of the more prominent and influential statesmen. In the early years of the republic, the Senate was dominated by the patricians. The common people, the *plebians*, were not allowed to serve as consul or members of the Senate. As a later concession, the plebians were allowed to elect two officials, called *tribunes*, with power to veto measures passed by the Senate.

After centuries of struggle, the plebians gained greater influence in government. Plebians were given equal voting rights with the patricians and the Assembly gained the right to make laws. By 367 B.C. plebians were allowed to hold any public office, including that of consul or senator.

As the Republic grew into an empire with the wealth flowing back to Rome, politicians began to seek office for personal gain, hoping to make themselves rich for life during their term of office. A power struggle for control of the government in Rome continued for over a hundred years until Augusttus gained control of the army and established himself as emperor in 30 B.C. For two hundred years the Romans enjoyed peace and prosperity, but the Empire was weakened by conditions within until it was unable to withstand the invasion of barbarian tribes from the north. One of the problems of government was the lack of a legal provision for the election of the emperor. Government became corrupt as various individuals vied for power. Another problem was the difficulty of binding the far-flung provinces with widely different cultures into a unified state. In an attempt to hold the empire together, citizenship was granted wholesale to all of the population, but the Roman subjects in the frontier provinces did not have the resolve or national spirit to withstand the invaders from the north.

When the citizens of Rome became a mob having to be perpetually fed and entertained by bread and circuses at the state's expense, the leadership found a new symbol for the entire empire in the Divine Emperor. The Empire became an absolute monarchy, the Senate was deprived of its power, and the emperor took on the character of an Oriental monarch. When the capital was moved to Constantinople in 330 A.D., the empire in the West disintegrated.

Thus the Romans never fully committed themselves to any one form of government. In keeping with their practical nature, they tried to adopt some of the better qualities of three different systems of government. From the monarchy, they borrowed the idea of a strong chief executive. In keeping with the principle of rule by an elite, they favored government by an aristocracy which was especially

suited by background and training for public service. In line with the democratic ideal, they realized that government, even under the absolute rule of an emperor, must maintain some vestige of popular consent.

During the time of the Roman Empire the message of prophetic Judaism and early Christianity, with its emphasis on the equality of all men before God, became widespread. Thus the seeds for the concept of the essential equality of all men were planted before the Empire collapsed.

The feudal system which flourished in Europe during the Middle Ages (500-1500 A.D.) was not a natural environment for the nurture of democracy. It stressed a hierarchy of statuses from the serf to the monarch. Each social class had to stay within certain limits in the social order, to be protected by law within those bounds, theoretically at least.

**Democratic Institutions in England.** No country has contributed so much to democracy as England, the "Mother of Parliaments" and home of the Common Law, a model for justice in much of the western world. England is especially important to the United States, because much of our law and many of our political institutions are derived from the British. Three monumental documents of English liberty, the Magna Carta, the Petition of Right, and the Bill of Rights, are ancestors of our own Constitution and Bill of Rights.

*Development of Courts and Common Law.* When Anglo-Saxon England was conquered in 1066 by William of Normandy, the government was centralized under an all-powerful monarch. But it was a feudal monarchy and centralized only as long as the king was capable of beating down the rebellions of his recalcitrant barons. The Norman monarchy, interacting with the established institutions of the Anglo-Saxons, gradually developed the system of courts and the Common Law.

Henry II (1154-89), building upon the work of his predecessors, created a much improved legal system. He sent his own justices throughout the land to hear cases that involved violations of the king's peace. Crimes that had once been considered matters for personal settlement now became the concern of the state. To determine the true facts in a case, the justices called in a jury a group of men of the locality who were sworn to give truthful information about the matter under trial. This jury was the forerunner of the present grand jury, not the trial jury. The members of the trial jury of today are selected for their ignorance about the facts of a case, but the members of the jury of Henry's day were selected for their knowledge of the facts. Although the king's jury was intended primarily to hear offenses against the crown, it could be used to hear private lawsuits by obtaining a writ from the King's Chancellor. Henry's new legal system was really the beginning of the Common Law, a uniform law for all of England.

The distinctive feature of the Common Law is that it is based upon the customs, habits, and folkways of the people. The principles of Common Law were derived from customs accepted in early judicial decisions and reinforced by judges' opinions for generations, until they had binding force. The Common Law is a living, changing body of law that can be adapted relatively easily to changing conditions. The development of the Common Law gradually led to the supremacy of the law, even the king being bound by it.

In 1183, Henry II issued an edict declaring that every freeman owed military service to the king and had to maintain his own military equipment. Henry's legal and military reforms were

attempts to increase the royal power by playing off the lesser freemen against the barons. The barons gradually lost their monopoly of the military service and were being deprived of their control of the local courts by the growing importance of the king's courts and the services of the jurymen in those courts.

*The Magna Carta.* In 1215, the freemen and barons joined hands for a change and forced King John to sign the *Magna Carta*, a "Great Charter" which guaranteed certain rights of the people. The Magna Carta is one of the greatest documents in the history of human liberty, usually considered in the same category as the Declaration of Independence. Scholarly research, however, has shown that the barons did not obtain in the Magna Carta a clear guarantee of basic human rights. The Magna Carta was aimed chiefly at protecting the feudal privileges of the nobility, but the barons, in return for the help of the lesser freemen in the struggle against the king, did exact some rewards for their allies. The men of London and other towns were promised "all their liberties and free customs," and "all the freemen of our kingdom" were included in the liberties granted in the charter.

The two outstanding articles of the Magna Carta were the twelfth and the thirty-ninth. The twelfth stated "no scutage nor aid shall be levied in our kingdom, unless by common consent of our kingdom," which was interpreted by later generations as "no taxation without representation." The thirty-ninth article stipulated that no freeman could be arrested or molested "unless by the lawful judgment of his peers" and "by the law of the land." This last article was later claimed as a guarantee of trial by jury—not by the king's jury, but a jury of one's equals. Although the barons did not have these interpretations in mind in 1215, the Magna Carta provided later generations with a written document as a guarantee of their liberties. It served as written proof that there were laws and customs above the king himself. The basic principles of the Magna Carta—such as no taxation without representation, no unlawful arrests, and the right to trial by jury—were incorporated in the American Constitution and have been included in most democratic constitutions since.

*Establishment of Parliament.* The next great step in the history of English liberty was the establishment of Parliament. Although there had been earlier experiments with a Parliament, historians generally consider the Parliament called by Edward I in 1295 as the first real Parliament. It is often called the Model Parliament. The writs summoning the Model Parliament stated, "What concerns all should be approved by all." For the first time the king invited not only the nobles and higher clergy to his council, but also representatives of the middle class, or *commons*, from each of the shires (countries) and each city or borough. Each of the forty shires was directed to send two knights, and each of the 114 chartered cities and boroughs was to send two burgesses. A knight was a mounted soldier, usually of the noble birth who had attained honorable military rank. A burgess was a free citizen, a civilian.

The knights soon found that it was to their advantage to band together with the burgesses from the cities, thus laying the foundation for later power of the House of Commons. The lower clergy soon abandoned Parliament and began to hold their own convocations. This left the nobles and bishops to form their own group which became the House of Lords.

Parliament came into its own during the Hundred Years' War when the kings needed large sums of money to fight the

French. In order to get Parliament to grant these sums, the kings had to make concessions. It became a practice for Parliament to ask for some reform or new law before granting the king's request for money. Parliament thus became a lawmaking body, and no new law was passed without its consent. Parliament had its ups and downs during the Wars of the Roses and under the popular Tudor rule, but under the Stuarts in the seventeenth century, Parliament gained enormous prestige.

*The Petition of Right.* Charles I, finding Parliament reluctant to grant him funds for his unlucky raids against the French, tried to get along by extracting funds where he could find them, often by the device of forced loans. Several prominent persons refused to make such loans and were promptly arrested and thrown into prison. With insufficient funds to provide for his troops, the king began billeting them free of charge in private homes. Troops being troops, they caused much trouble, especially with the female members of these households. These and other abuses led the Parliament to draw up the *Petition of Right,* another important document in English history. This document was a protest against the king's violations of the traditional liberties of Englishmen. It listed the grievances of the population against the king, and put him in an illegal position if he continued the abuses. The Petition of Right was signed by King Charles in 1628, but it was not long before he disregarded it. He continued to raise funds through illegal taxes and managed by one method or another to get along without convening the Parliament from 1629 to 1640. When he finally had to capitulate and call Parliament into session in 1640, members of Parliament were in no mood for compromise. The abuses had continued too long, and tensions had grown too great. Civil war followed, and Parliamentary forces under Cromwell defeated Charles I and held him prisoner for two years. In December 1648, a small group of extremists seized control of Parliament and convened a High Court of Justice to try Charles as a tyrant, traitor, and murderer. He was found guilty, and on 30 January 1649, he was beheaded in front of his palace of Whitehall in London.

After the death of Charles I, England was declared a "commonwealth," a republic with neither a king nor House of Lords. But the real ruler was Cromwell who held the republic together for nearly ten years with military strength and forceful leadership.

*The Bill of Rights.* After Cromwell's death in 1659, the monarchy was reconstituted under Charles II. The people had grown tired of military government and the drab life under the Puritan Cromwell. Charles II was succeeded by his younger brother, James II. The younger Stuart ran into difficulties when he openly avowed his Catholicism and began appointing catholics to high places. England had become a Protestant country, and the majority of Englishmen hated Catholicism. As a result James had to flee the country, and in 1688 he was succeeded by his Protestant daughter, Mary, and her Dutch husband, William of Orange.

William and Mary came to the throne as the result of the Glorious, or Bloodless, Revolution—the pride of Englishmen, who compare it with the bloody revolutions so prevalent elsewhere. Before William and Mary could be crowned, they had to sign the *Bill of Rights,* passed by the Parliament to safeguard its rights under the monarchy. The making and suspending of laws, the levying of taxes, and the maintenance of a standing army were all declared illegal without the consent of Parliament. Like the Magna Carta and the Petition of Right, the Bill of Rights was a great chapter in the development of English liberty. England had become

a constitutional monarchy, with the powers of the sovereign strictly limited by law. Parliament had become supreme and has remained so to the present. The English Bill of Rights became the model for the American Bill of Rights and all similar charters enacted in other countries. It stressed the importance of individual freedom in politics, law, religion, and in other aspects of personal life.

The Bill of Rights did not suddenly turn England into the kind of democracy that we know today. Election to Parliament was regulated by outdated laws, with many of its members being appointed, rather than elected, from the so-called "pocket" boroughs, which were owned by one man. Probably the most famous of the "rotten" boroughs was Old Sarum, on the site of the original city of Salisbury. It was forty acres of plowed land with not a single building or inhabitant, yet the owner of this tract erected a tent on the ground and carried out the "election" formalities. The result of such practices was that the Parliament was influenced by a relatively small minority of the population. With much struggle, the right to vote was broadened throughout the nineteenth and twentieth centuries until in 1928, all British citizens over twenty-one were granted the franchise.

The story of the growth of English political liberty points out the difficulties involved in making democracy work. With all of England's political genius, the struggle for real democracy took six centuries of conflict and turmoil. We must conclude that democracy is a complex and complicated form of government that requires a high level of social and political maturity.

*New Religious and Social Ideas.* As we have seen, freedom did not arise spontaneously in England, but was rather a slow evolutionary process. This gradual political change did not occur separate from other things that were going on during that time. The way people feel about politics is greatly affected by how they feel about other things such as religion, science, economics, sociology, and philosophy. During the seventeenth and eighteenth centuries a new intellectual climate was becoming dominant in England. The product of this new intellectual climate had an enormous effect not only on politics in England, but in all of Europe and the New World.

John Milton, an official in Cromwell's Commonwealth as well as one of England's greatest poets, stated the case for intellectual freedom in a short essay entitled *Areopagitica*, the most eloquent plea for freedom of the press ever made. The right to think, speak, and write, free from governmental restraint, was gaining strong support, and the number of restrictions was steadily diminishing.

Toward the end of the seventeenth century Isaac Newton published his *Principia*, with its explanation of the law of gravity, a mathematically accurate account of how all bodies in the universe are regulated. Although the work was primarily a scientific one, it also amounted to a revolution in social and religious ideas.

The idea of an intimate and personal God who interfered with man and Nature in an erratic and unpredictable way now gave way to a Deity who had wound up the universe like a big clock and sat in the background watching its intricate mechanism operate throughout the ages. According to this concept, Nature functioned in line with precise, unchanging laws. Man had only to study Nature in order to understand these laws. These new ideas ushered in the "Age of Reason." Where earlier thought had been dominated by religious ideas which depended on interpretation of the Bible or the traditions of the Church, it was now dominated by reason. Reason had become king of the ideological realm.

The counterpart of Newton in the realm of political ideas was John Locke. At about the same time that Newton came out with his *Principia*, Locke published his *Essay Concerning Human Understanding*. Locke asserted that we are born without any "innate ideas," all we know being gained from the sensations that flow in upon us from the natural and social worlds around us. This "sensational" philosophy became the gospel of the eighteenth century. According to this philosophy, man and nature are integral parts of God's universe; by studying the laws of Nature, man should be able to learn principles that can be used to establish harmonious political institutions; these principles are *natural law*, a law above man-made law and to which man-made law should conform. From these premises, Locke went on to state that governments exist for men, not men for governments, and that all governments derive their just powers from the consent of the governed. By this philosophy, Locke rationalized the Glorious Revolution of 1688, which had given England a constitutional monarchy.

**Democracy in France.** Early in the eighteenth century, French philosophers and writers took notice of the representative government in England. Intellectuals like Voltaire, Diderot, and Montesquieu took up the call for reason in social and political affairs. Voltaire attacked the Church and the priesthood as roadblocks in the new "rational" world. Diderot waged a ceaseless battle against all kinds of censorship and thought control by the church or the monarchy. Montesquieu had lived in England and observed the English system firsthand. He admired the English for their common sense and moderation in politics and urged a moderate approach to social reform in France. But the rulers of France failed to see the signs of the times, and ignored the wave of rationalism and "enlightened despotism" that was sweeping other parts of Europe. Frederick the Great of Prussia hired Voltaire for his council. Catherine the Great of Russia corresponded with many of the leading philosophers, and Joseph II of Austria tried to reform his Hapsburg realms. Even in Spain, Charles II curbed the Inquisition and expelled the Jesuits. Only in France did the monarchs ignore the trend of enlightened rule.

The eighteenth century reformers in France soon realized that their new and better world was not going to come by way of the throne, enlightened or otherwise. The events in seventeenth-century England and Locke's justification of the Glorious Revolution of 1688 began to appeal to the reformers who were looking for some authority above the king. One of the most influential reformers of eighteenth-century France was Jean Jacques Rousseau. In his book, *Social Contacts*, published in 1762, he argued that the sovereign power resides with the people, and the government derives its authority from the consent of the governed. He declared that reasonable men could accept no other form of government. He really called for revolution when he wrote: "The depositors of the executive power are not the people's masters, but its officers. . . it can set them up or pull them down when it likes."

The example of the American Revolution, with its use of Locke's philosophy to justify the revolt against George III, was another argument in the reformer's arsenal. From the ideological standpoint, the French Revolution was accomplished before it began.

*The French Revolution.* The desire for political change had been smouldering for a long time in France. It was a full hundred years after the Bill of Rights was passed in England when that desire erupted into violent revolt. Louis XVI of France was anything but the strong man needed to guide the

necessary political changes. He allowed the people to send delegates to Versaille to work out some solution, but the Assembly soon got out of hand and the mob began to exert its influence. On 14 July 1789, the mob stormed the Bastille in Paris, marched on the Palace at Versaille, and brought the royal family back to Paris.

Every Revolution must have its symbols, slogans, and scapegoats. In the American Revolution the symbols were the Boston Massacre and the Boston Tea Party; the slogan was "No taxation without representation"; the scapegoat was George III. For the French Revolution, the storming of the Bastille became the symbol; "Liberty, Equality, Fraternity" was the slogan; and Marie Antoinette, Louis's Queen, was the villainess.

The French Revolution was to last for ten years, with a constant shifting of power and influence from one faction to another. After the Bastille was taken and the royal family was brought to Paris, the fury of the mob became a large factor in the deliberations of the Assembly. By August 1789, the Assembly had abolished most of the feudal privileges and issued the *Declaration of the Rights of Man and the Citizen*, a mixture of ideas from the English and American revolutionary movements, plus a large measure of the democratic philosophy of Rousseau. As in most social revolutions, the rising expectations of the great mass of the population quickly came into conflict with the ideas held by the more conservative middle-class leaders, who wanted only political and legal changes. The masses, stirred up by the slogan, "Liberty, Equality, Fraternity," wanted the social and economic equality implied in that slogan.

By 1791 a Constitution establishing a limited monarchy had been provided, but too late. Restrictions in the Constitution denied the majority of the people the right to vote, and this did not jibe with the promise of "Equality and Fraternity." The leaders of the Revolution began to split up into parties, some of which discovered that the way to power was to go along with the masses of Paris and promise them more and more. The King's attempt to flee the country in 1791 and the armed intervention of Austria and Prussia on the side of the monarchy inflamed public indignation. A mob attack on the royal family in the Tuileries in August 1792 led the Assembly to suspend the monarchy, and the Revolution entered its bloody phase, with political differences settled on the guillotine. Louis XVI was beheaded in January 1793, and thousands of "royalists" followed him to the guillotine during that infamous period recorded in history as the *Reign of Terror*. During this period, no one was safe, even the revolutionaries themselves.

By 1794 a reaction set in, and Robespierre, the executioner par excellence of the Revolution, perished on the guillotine. Then followed a relatively calm period of bickering between those who wanted to stop or even push back the revolution and the masses who demanded more equality. Finally, at the end of 1799, Napoleon Bonaparte came to power by a coup d'etat, and France had a master for the next fifteen years.

Seldom in history have the events of a decade done more to the traditional structure of a continent than did the French Revolution. The real power in France shifted to the middle-class, and feudal privileges disappeared completely. The Church lost most of its property, and the monarchy could never again be so absolute as before. Education for all became an accepted goal. The legal system was completely overhauled, and a code of laws was established under Napoleon. The administration of the country was reformed, and has remained much the same up

*George Washington (1732-1799) was a leader for his country in both war and peace. With his strength of character his outstanding asset as a military leader, General Washington commanded the Continental Army for eight years, and achieved victory. He was a delegate from Virginia to the Constitutional Convention in 1787, and was chosen to be the chairman of the group. When, in 1789, the newly drafted constitution was accepted by the people, it was George Washington who was chosen to be the young nation's first president.*

to the present. Democracy, however, has not been a constant system in France. Napoleon ruled with a strong authoritarian hand, and there have been numerous times of war and national emergency when the democratic system gave way to other forms of government. But the idea of Liberty, Equality, and Fraternity is woven into the fabric of French society, and when normal conditions were restored, France has always come back to the democratic form of government.

**American Democracy.** The seeds of American democracy were brought by the colonists, primarily the British. The British colonists brought with them their strong beliefs about individual freedom and representative government. The earliest settlements in Virginia and New England practiced democracy almost from the start. By 1619 the first permanent colony at Jamestown had become firmly established, and the Virginia Company allowed the colonists to elect members to an assembly called the House of Burgesses. Although its powers were limited and the governor could overrule its decisions, the Virginia House of Burgesses gave the colonists an opportunity to participate in making the laws under which they were to live. This was an important step in the establishment of self-government in the colonies. When the *Mayflower* arrived off the coast of Massachusetts in November of 1620, the Pilgrims drew up and signed an agreement called the *Mayflower Compact.* This document consisted of only a few lines stating that those who signed the agreement would abide by the will of the majority and obey certain other regulations. When the colony was established ashore, the adult male members began to assemble in open-discussion town meetings to make the laws that would govern the colony. These early steps toward self-government in Virginia and New England were important precedents which later colonies followed.

The ideological concepts of Newton and Locke which the early settlers brought with them to America had a profound effect on both the French and English colonies. The writing of these two men provided the intellectual sparks from which the flame of revolution grew. When Thomas Jefferson penned the immortal phrases of the Declaration of Independence in 1776, he had apparently absorbed the work of Locke so completely that much of the wording of the Declaration is taken directly from that source. Nevertheless, the Declaration stated in concise, beautiful language precisely what everyone was thinking.

There were many reasons why the

American colonies revolted against England. Some of these were geographic, others economic, and still others arose from a long tradition of local self-government. The immediate causes of the Revolution were basically economic: protests against various taxes and British interference with colonial trade. The favorite slogan became "No taxation without representation," as was the right and due of every freeborn English citizen. But these reasons could not justify the awful heresy of treason. Every colonist who spoke out for independence knew that he might end up with a noose around his neck. Therefore, the colonists needed a philosophical basis for their revolt. They found it in the Lockean phraseology which set the tone of the Declaration of Independence. A good example is found in the following quote from the Declaration:

> We hold these truths to be self-evident, that all men are created equal, that they are endowed by their Creator with certain inalienable rights; that among these are life, liberty, and the pursuit of happiness. That to secure these rights, governments are instituted among men, deriving their just powers from the consent of the governed; that, whenever any form of government becomes destructive of these ends, it is the right of the people to alter or to abolish it, and to institute a new government, laying its foundation on such principles, and organizing its powers in such form, as to them shall seem most likely to effect their safety and happiness.

Here we see that something new has been added to the ancient English traditions of individual liberty and government by consent of the governed. These upstart colonists now insisted that they were entitled not only to individual liberty and a voice in their own government, but were also entitled to seek their own happiness and satisfaction without interference from government. They also asserted their right to abolish any government that did not guarantee those rights. These ideas would have been unthinkable under a feudal monarchy, and certainly in Cromwell's Commonwealth. Even the Bill of Rights signed by William and Mary did not imply any such radical thoughts. For the first time in history, a nation had adopted democracy not just as a form of law and government, but as a *way of life.*

The War for American Independence ended with the signing of the Treaty of Paris in 1783, and it was left for the new nation to decide what kind of government would direct its affairs. Some favored a continuation of the loose confederation of states that existed under the Articles of Confederation adopted by the Second Continental Congress. Having just won their independence from the tyrannical rule of King George III, many of the states were wary of a strong central government. They preferred to govern their own domestic affairs without outside interference. But the weaknesses of the Articles of Confederation soon became apparent. The Congress had no power to levy taxes, to regulate trade between the states, or to prevent the sates from coining their own currency. With these handicaps the Confederacy found it impossible to pay off debts incurred to finance the war, and trade between the states was hindered by the lack of a standard currency and equitable tariff laws.

As the Confederation proved unable to solve its increasing problems, more people began to speak out in favor of a stronger central government. At the urging of such men as Alexander Hamilton and James Madison, the Congress

called for a convention of delegates to discuss the amendment of the Articles of Confederation. The convention convened in Philadelphia in 1787, in the same building where the Declaration of Independence had been signed eleven years before. George Washington, a delegate from Virginia, was the unanimous choice for chairman of the convention.

It soon became apparent that amendment of the Articles of the Confederation was an impossible task. It was decided that a new constitution was the only solution. During the long hot Philadelphia summer of 1787, those distinguished delegates, with uncommon vision and foresight, drafted a constitution that has endured for nearly two hundred years. This new constitution gave the central government the power to enforce its laws and punish offenders. It also gave the government the right to levy taxes, to regulate trade between states and with foreign countries, to defend the country, to borrow money, and to coin money. There were also certain powers that the central government reserved as its own and denied to the states. Among the most important provisions of the new constitution was the division of government into three branches—a legislative branch to pass laws; an executive branch to carry out laws; and a judicial branch to establish courts to try those accused of violations of national laws. This separation of the powers of government was another idea borrowed from the writings of John Locke. In his *Two Treatises on Government*, Locke advocated just such a system of "checks and balances" to prevent concentration of the powers of government in the hands of a single individual or agency.

By 1789 all of the states had ratified the Constitution and electors from the states voted unanimously for George Washington to be the first President of the new nation. Kings and emperors ruled in other countries of the world, but the people in America had created a new kind of government. By consent of the majority the United States had become a *federal republic*. It was *federal* because its powers were shared by the states as well as a strong central government. It was a *republic* because the people, acting through their elected representatives, had a voice in their government.

Some argued that the Constitution did not guarantee enough liberty to the people, so in 1791 Congress accepted ten amendments to the Constitution. The amendments, which became known as the Bill of Rights, guarantee the essential liberties of the citizens of the United States. The drafters of our Constitution would be proud indeed of the success and durability of their work. The principles set forth in that inspired document stand as a challenge and an inspiration for freedom-loving people around the world.

### *DEMOCRACY IN OTHER AREAS*

The principles of freedom expressed in the Constitution of the United States are echoed in the originating documents of many other democratic nations, in Europe, Asia, Africa, and South America. While the ideology of democracy in America has served as a model for this discussion, because the most successful example of the democratic system is to be seen in this nation, there are other examples of democratic traditions at work in widely separated parts of the world.

The success of democracy in England, France, and the United States has spread to many other parts of the world, but its success has not been universal. In Europe, the democratic traditions have become deeply implanted in Holland, Switzerland, Belgium, Denmark, Sweden, Norway, and Finland.

But these are relatively small countries with a high standard of living and well educated citizens. With the exception of France, no major power on the European continent has been able to establish a solid and continuous tradition of democracy.

Italy adopted a parliamentary system in 1870, but this system was toppled by the Fascist party under Benito Mussolini in 1922, and Italy joined forces with Germany and Japan to fight against the democratic countries in World War II. After her surrender to the Allies in 1943, Italy moved slowly back toward democracy and has operated as a parliamentary republic ever since 1945. There has developed, however, a strong communist faction in Italian politics, and this poses a serious handicap for the functioning of democracy.

Democracy has had an even more difficult time in Germany. Germany was ruled by a succession of emperors from the time of its unification in 1871, until her defeat in World War I in 1918. A parliamentary democracy was imposed upon Germany by the victorious Allies after the war, but it lasted only until 1933, when Hitler came to power. After World War II, Germany was divided into two parts, East Germany and West Germany. West Germany, with the encouragement of Britain, France, and the United States, has developed a successful democratic system, accompanied by a highly productive economy and high standards of living. East Germany was occupied by the Soviet Union following the war and was brought into the communist camp. The government of East Germany is modeled after the Communist police state. Social and economic achievements of East Germany have fallen far short of those of democratic West Germany. The reunification of Germany under a democratic system appears to be unlikely in the forseeable future.

The Latin American colonies established by Spain and Portugal did not inherit democratic traditions as did the English colonies in North America. It was the influence of the American and French revolutions that brought the idea of democracy to Latin America, but with the exception of Uruguay and Costa Rica—which have been consistently democratic—the progress of democracy in Latin America has been slow. The military dictatorship has been the dominant form of government in that area for most of its modern history. But the three largest countries in Latin America—Mexico, Argentina, and Brazil—have made much progress toward free government in recent years. As dictators have been overthrown in those countries, they have been replaced by democratic systems. Despite communist attempts to subvert the established governments throughout Latin America, the trend in that area has been toward more and more free government.

We have seen how England influenced the growth of democracy in France and the United States, but her influence did not end there. For three hundred years England controlled territories around the world. She has now set free her colonials, but the British traditions of liberty and freedom have left their mark. Englishmen with their constitutionality took democracy to Canada, New Zealand, and Australia. English administration laid the foundations of democracy in Ireland, India, Pakistan, Ceylon, and Burma.

Adventuresome Englishmen, Americans, Frenchmen, Belgians, Dutchmen, and Scandinavians, with their constitutional backgrounds, have carried the message of democracy to many parts of Asia and Africa. In some of these areas it has taken root and become firmly

established. In other areas it has been slow to develop or has failed to germinate at all.

In Asia, considerable progress toward democratic government has been made in Japan, India, and Israel. Japan was initiated into democracy during the American occupation following World War II. Under the governorship of General Douglas MacArthur, Japan adopted a constitutional government and extended the vote to all eligible citizens. A generation of Japanese have now grown up under democracy and have come to accept it as a way of life. Japan, like West Germany, has prospered under the democratic system. India, with a population of more than 400 million, is the largest democratic republic in the world, but her complex society, with its many languages and religions, is a difficult environment for the practice of representative government. Nevertheless, much progress has been made since India gained her independence from England in 1947. If problems of hunger, poverty, and illiteracy can be solved, India will become an important factor in the future of democracy in Asia. The state of Israel was created in 1949 amid a storm of controversy that has continued to the present. Despite its small size and population (about two million) Israel has developed into a strong economic and military power in the Middle East. Israel was established on democratic ideals and has maintained her strong democratic traditions.

In other parts of Asia, democracy has not fared as well. Democratic movements in Southeast Asia, in particular, have had a difficult time. Even in the Philippine Republic, where great strides have been made toward constitutional government, it still remains to be seen whether a mature democratic system will emerge. Vietnam is an example of the difficulty of establishing democracy in a country and among a people who have no tradition of personal liberty and self-government. This difficulty is compounded when foreign powers attempt to impose their own systems on such a country by subversion, military force, or both.

In recent years most of the former European colonies in Africa have gained their independence. With the exception of Nigeria, which has made great strides toward democratic government, the outlook for democracy is not too promising. These former colonies are plagued with poverty and illiteracy, and have had little or no preparation for self-government. There is also the problem of uniting many different tribes, each with its own language, customs and internal leadership. Many of these tribes are traditional enemies of other tribes in the same country, and tribal loyalty is very strong. It is difficult to replace this fierce tribal loyalty with loyalty to a distant and unseen national government. These conditions make any kind of national government extremely difficult.

# HENRY ROSS PEROT
# INDUSTRIALIST
# PHILANTHROPIST

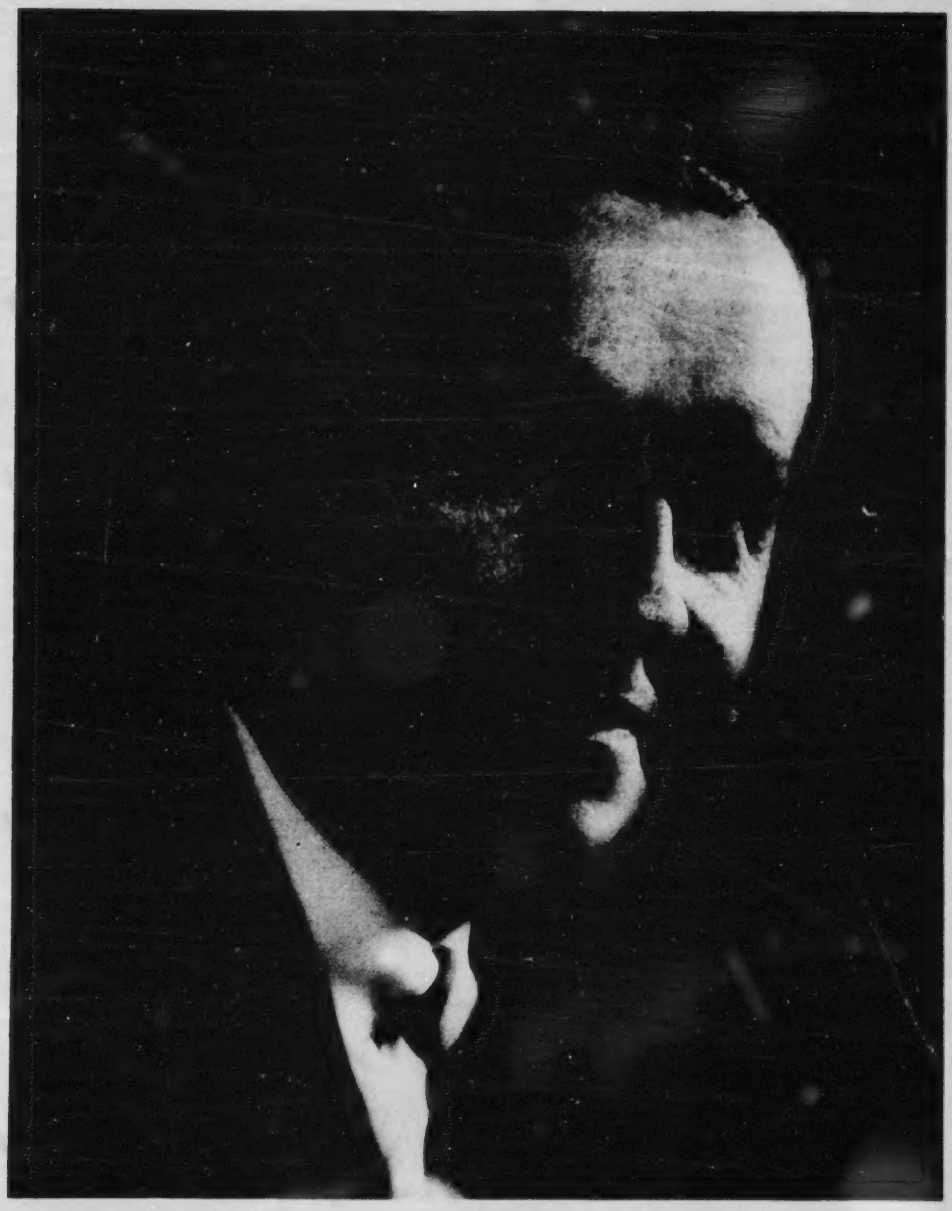
Self-made Texas multimillionaire H. Ross Perot has dazzled Wall Street with his business sense and captured headlines with his patriotic zeal in behalf of United States prisoners of war in North Vietnam. Perot's fortune is based on his near total ownership of the Electronic Data Systems Corporation, a rapidly expanding computer service company that he founded in Dallas in 1962. Perot believes in an essentially nonpolitical faith in initiative, hard work, old-fashioned reverence for home, country, and religion, and a profound disdain for bureaucracy. Although his philanthropies have included large contributions to the Boy Scouts and to ghetto public schools, he is best known for his ventures into international diplomacy to aid the American POW's and especially for his unsuccessful attempt to fly to Hanoi in December 1969 with Christmas packages for the prisoners.

Henry Ross Perot was born on June 27, 1930 in the east Texas city of Texarkana. His father was a cotton broker and part-time horse trader. When he was six Perot went to work for his father, breaking horses to the saddle for a dollar or two apiece. (His nose still shows the results of the falls he took.) But his real talent was for selling, whether Christmas cards, used saddles, or the *Saturday Evening Post*. At the age of twelve he was making $40.00 a week delivering newspapers on horseback, covering a twenty mile route each morning before school.

As a Boy Scout, Perot rose to the rank of Eagle Scout. In school he was a mediocre student until the eleventh grade, when the teacher told him he was not as bright as his classmates and thus prodded him into earning straight A's. After high school he attended Texarkana Junior College as a pre-law student, but his real ambition was to study at the United States Naval Academy and go to sea. In 1949 he succeeded in obtaining an appointment to Annapolis.

At Annapolis Perot was an average student, graduating 454th in a class of 925, but his classmates voted him the best all-around midshipman and life president of the class. After receiving his commission, in June 1953, Perot boarded a destroyer en route to Korea, but the Korean war ended before the ship arrived. Ensign Perot's next assignment was as assistant navigator aboard an aircraft carrier. Perot decided not to sign up for another hitch and was discharged in 1957 with the rank of lieutenant. He felt that in another profession he could better be judged by what he could produce.

After being discharged from the Navy Perot went to work for International Business Machines Corporation selling computers in Dallas. In his fifth year with I.B.M. he sold his year's quota in the first three weeks of January. While in the job he read Henry David Thoreau's observation, "The mass of men lead lives of quiet desperation," and he decided that he must not



*H. Ross Perot*

allow his initiative and individuality to be stifled, so decided to quit and strike out on his own.

On his thirty-second birthday, June 27, 1962, he founded Electronic Data Systems with $1,000 in savings and with his wife, his sister, and his mother as chartered directors. Determined not to go into debt buying capital equipment, he initially used a computer owned by a Dallas insurance company, buying unused time on it at wholesale rates and then selling it retail to another firm. During the 1960's, E.D.S. doubled its business annually, branch offices sprang up in major cities throughout the United States, and the number of employees grew to 1,700. When Perot decided it was time for his company to sell stock, in 1968, he handled the stock offering as shrewdly as he had built up the firm. At the close of trading the first day, September 12, 1968, E.D.S. was selling at $23 a share. Since Perot had kept more than 9,000,000 shares for himself, his net worth at sunset was over $200,000,000. By the first week of October, E.D.S. stock was quoted at $33, and at the height of the bull market in 1969-70 it hovered around $150, making Perot, on paper at least, a billionaire.

Ross Perot is not interested in a life of personal luxury, so he directs his money toward projects that he considers deserving. One recipient of his money is the United States government, to which he pays taxes even on the tax-exempt money he puts into the Perot Foundation, the nonprofit corporation he established in April 1969 to handle his philanthropies. Among the foundation's beneficiaries are the Dallas public school system, which is receiving money over a three-year period, two-thirds of it for a ghetto elementary school, in addition to money for a high school leadership program; the Boy Scouts of Dallas, who are receiving $1,000,000 to help extend their work to black and Mexican youth; and a Dallas Roman Catholic high school, which is receiving money because Perot heard that it was a good school.

But Perot's most publicized project has been his effort to free United States prisoners of war in North Vietnam, an effort that has cost him an estimated $2,000,000. That project began in the fall of 1969, when the wives of four POW's wanting to go to Paris to ask North Vietnamese officials there for news of their husbands asked Perot to help them. He did so, and the four women went to Paris, to no avail. Perot then set up an organization called United We Stand, which spent $1,000,000 on newspaper and television advertising to publicize the POW problem and to urge public support of President Nixon's Vietnam policies. Perot felt that the fastest way out of Vietnam was for United States citizens to unite behind the government. Within a few weeks United We Stand had collected twenty-six tons of mail, food, clothes, and medicine for the Americans held in North Vietnam. In January 1970 Ross Perot offered North Vietnam a $100,000,000 ransom for the American POW's, but the offer was ignored.

Perot contends that his missions were not failures, but that they woke the American people to the plight of the prisoners; put the fate of the POW's on the agenda of the Paris peace talks; made the North Vietnamese more humane in their treatment; and increased the flow of mail to the prisoners and the number and size of the packages they were allowed to receive.

To stimulate a sense of participatory democracy in more citizens, Perot has long cherished the idea of establishing what he calls an "electronic town hall," consisting of network televisions programs devoted to bipartisan discussion of national issues. Viewer opinions

would be elicited, compiled by computer, and made available to legislators. While his adventures in public service have inspired speculation about possible political motives on his part, Perot says that he is not interested in seeking political office.

H. Ross Perot is a firm believer in old-fashioned morality, and not ashamed of it. He makes it clear to all new employees that cheating on their marriages will mean the loss of their jobs, and while he does not require employees to abstain from smoking and drinking as he himself does, he does establish conservative standards of dress for his male employees. The keyword in Perot's company is efficiency; supervisors are trained to quickly remedy any waste of time or motion in their sections. The company is modeled after its president, quick and efficient. H. Ross Perot is a small, wiry man, five feet six inches tall, weighing about 130 pounds, with close-cropped hair. He has modest tastes, driving an older Lincoln, buys his suits off the rack, and he eats as much hamburger as steak. He is married and has four children—three daughters and a son, and he considers a strong family life essential to everyone.

CHAPTER 9

# RESPONSIBILITIES OF CITIZENSHIP AND SELF-GOVERNMENT

As American citizens we enjoy many rights and privileges. These rights did not come easily. They were won with much blood, sweat, and tears by our forefathers, and many generations have made grave sacrifices to protect and preserve those rights. When we accept the rights of citizenship in America, we also assume certain duties that are necessary to protect those rights, not only for ourselves, but for generations of Americans who will follow us. This chapter will discuss our rights and privileges as American citizen and will outline those duties and responsibilities that are required of us to preserve those rights and privileges for our posterity.

Those of us who have lived all of our lives in America take for granted the rights and privileges that are allowed us in our free society. However, if we talk to those who have lived under the oppression of totalitarian systems, we will learn that the freedoms we enjoy are not universal. Things that we expect in the normal course of our lives are not enjoyed in all parts of the world. When we finish high school we expect to go to college or to choose the kind of work we would like to do, and we expect to be allowed to enjoy the benefits of our labor to improve our condition in life. We expect to own an automobile or home, and some of us have hopes of having a business of our own. We also expect to be allowed to attend the church of our choice or to peacefully assemble for any legitimate purpose. We expect to be able to move about freely within our country or to travel abroad if that is our desire.

We expect all of these things because they have become a way of life for Americans who believe that only the individual can decide what is best for him and what will make his life satisfying and happy. In many nations, however, the individual is not allowed to decide what is best for him, rather the state decides what is best for all the people. Under Communist totalitarianism it is the state that decides who goes to college, who works at what jobs, and who is allowed to own an automobile. Ownership of other than personal property is not allowed at all. All productive property such as farms and factories are owned by the state. The state also owns all of the housing and decides where people will live. Because the state makes so many choices for the people, the people are deprived of much of their individuality and human dignity.

Even in a democratic country the rights that we have come to expect are not always respected by or for all people. It was not until 1920 that women were allowed to vote in this country. For many years after the abolition of slavery, descendents of slaves were denied the right to vote in many parts of the country and were denied the opportunity to attend the better schools and universities. Similar discrimination was also practiced against our native Americans, the Indians. From time to

time well meaning people have sought to deny the fundamental rights to certain members of our society. During World War II, for example, when we were at war with Germany and Japan, severe restrictions were put on German and Japanese immigrants in this country. Many Japanese-Americans had their property confiscated and were herded off to detention camps. This seems cruel and inhuman to us today, but these injustices were done by well-meaning patriots in the name of "democracy." As we contemplate our rights and privileges as American citizens, it is well to remember that our personal rights are secure only as long as we respect the rights of others.

With that thought in mind, let us re-read the Bill of Rights. Remember that this document, which consists of the first ten amendments to the Constitution, sets out the specific rights and freedoms which the founders knew from their own bitter experience of living under the tyranny of the English king were the most vital and irreplaceable. In fact, several of the states had refused to ratify the Constitution until they were promised that their amendments would be adopted. Let us read the Bill of Rights first in its original language —exactly as it was written. Then let us examine each article to see what rights that document grants us and how those rights affect our daily lives.

## BILL OF RIGHTS

### AMENDMENT ONE

Freedom of Religion, of Speech, and of the Press.

Congress shall make no law respecting an establishment of religion, or prohibiting the free exercise thereof; or abridging the freedom of speech, or of the press; or the right of the people peaceably to assemble, and to petition the government for a redress of grievances.

### AMENDMENT TWO

Right to Keep and Bear Arms

A well regulated militia being necessary to the security of a free State, the right of the people to keep and bear arms, shall not be infringed.

### AMENDMENT THREE

Quartering of Soldiers

No soldier shall, in time of peace, be quartered in any house, without the consent of the owner, nor in time of war, but in a manner to be prescribed by law.

### AMENDMENT FOUR

Security from Unwarrantable Search and Seizure

The right of the people to be secure in their persons, houses, papers, and effects, against unreasonable searches and seizures, shall not be violated, and no warrants shall issue, but upon probable cause, supported by Oath or affirmation, and particularly describing the place to be searched, and the persons or things to be seized.

### AMENDMENT FIVE

Rights of Accused in Criminal Proceedings

No person shall be held to answer for a capital, or otherwise infamous crime, unless on a presentment or indictment of a grand jury, expect in cases arising in the land or naval forces, or in the militia, when in actual service in time of war or public danger; nor shall any person be subject for the same offense to be twice put in jeopardy of life or limb; nor shall be compelled in any criminal case to be a witness against himself, nor be deprived of life, liberty, or property, without due process of law; nor shall private property by taken for public use, without just compensation.

### AMENDMENT SIX

Right to Speedy Trial, Witnesses, etc.

In all criminal prosecutions, the accused shall enjoy the right to a speedy and public trial, by an impartial jury of the State and district wherein the crime shall have been committed, which district shall have been previously ascertained by law, and to be informed of the nature and cause of the accusation; to be confronted with the witnesses against him; to have compulsory process for obtaining witnesses in his favor, and to have the assistance of counsel for his defense.

AMENDMENT SEVEN

Trial by Jury in Civil Cases

In suits at common law, where the value in controversy shall exceed twenty dollars, the right of trial by jury shall be preserved, and no fact tried by a jury, shall be otherwise reexamined in any court of the United States, than according to rules of the common law.

AMENDMENT EIGHT

Bails—Fines—Punishments

Excessive bail shall not be required, nor excessive fines imposed, nor cruel and unusual punishments inflicted.

AMENDMENT NINE

Reservation of Rights of the People

The enumeration in the Constitution, of certain rights, shall not be construed to deny or disparage others retained by the people.

AMENDMENT TEN

Powers Reserved to States or People

The powers not delegated to the United States by the Constitution, nor prohibited by it to the States, are reserved to the States respectively, or to the people.

(The first ten Amendments, popularly known as The Bill of Rights, were proposed by Congress, September 25, 1789, and were ratified by the last necessary State December 15, 1791.)

What have we just read? What do those words written 200 years ago, many of which sound strange in our modern ears, really mean to us today? They still mean what our founders meant them to, and they carry the additional meanings which the Superme Court has given them over two centuries of court decisions and interpretations. Outlined below are the basic rights guaranteed by the Bill of Rights.

AMENDMENT 1—Freedom of Religion, of Speech, and of the Press; Guarantees Right to Assemble and Right of Petition

Guarantees freedom of religion, freedom of speech, and freedom of the press.

Guarantees the right to assemble peaceably, and the right to ask the government to change the laws.

AMENDMENT 2—Right to Keep Arms

Affirms the right of the people to possess and use firearms for their defense.

AMENDMENT 3—Quartering of Soldiers

Provides that, in time of peace, no soldiers shall be placed in a private home without approval of the owners.

AMENDMENT 4—Warrants of Search and Seizure

Assures that there shall be no search or seizure of persons or things without the legal authority of a warrant, properly issued, setting forth the cause, and describing the person or place to be searched or the person(s) or thing(s) to be seized.

AMENDMENT 5—Rights of Accused in Criminal Proceedings

Guarantees that no person can be held to answer (brought to trial) for a serious crime without first having been accused by a Grand

Jury, except persons actually in military service in time of war or public danger. (Members of the Armed Forces are tried by a military court without action by a Grand Jury.)

No person can be tried twice for the same crime.

No person in any criminal case shall have to testify against himself.

Life, liberty, or a person's property shall not be taken from him without a court trial.

Property will not be taken for public use without a fair price being paid for it.

AMENDMENT 6—Rights of Accused Persons

Guarantees an accused person the right to a trial by jury.

Provides that a person accused of a crime must be told plainly the nature of the crime of which he is accused.

He has the right to have a lawyer to defend him.

An accused person has the right to hear and question those who say he has committed a crime.

All witnesses who testify against an accused person must do so in his presence.

He has the right to compel any person to appear in court as a witness to testify in his favor.

AMENDMENT 7—Trial by Jury in Civil Cases

States that a trial by jury is guaranteed in any lawsuit which involves a claim of more than $20.

AMENDMENT 8—Excessive Punishments

Prohibits excessive bail, excessive fines, and cruel and unusual punishments.

AMENDMENT 9—Rights Reserved to the People

Declares that rights which the people may have had before the adoption of the Constitution are not taken away, nor do they have any lesser value, because they are not mentioned in the Constitution.

AMENDMENT 10—Powers Reserved to the States

Declares that any powers not given to the Federal government, nor clearly taken away from the states, are reserved to the states, or to the people.

The Bill of Rights expressed the principles that the purpose of government is to protect the rights and liberties of the individual. While the words of these first ten amendments remain unchanged, interpretations in court decisions have given them their fullest meanings as new conditions have arisen over the passing years.

Other amendments have been added to the Constitution as the need for them was expressed by the people. Since The Bill of Rights was ratified in 1791, sixteen more amendments have been added to the Constitution. Half of them deal directly with the rights of the people:

AMENDMENT 13—This amendment put an end to the holding of slaves.

AMENDMENT 14—All persons who were born or naturalized in the United States were declared citizens. No state can take away the rights of any person without due process of law.

AMENDMENT 15—No one can be kept from voting because of race, color, or previous condition of servitude.

AMENDMENT 17—Senators are to be elected by the people.

AMENDMENT 19—No person can be kept from voting because of sex.

AMENDMENT 23—This amendment gave the right to vote for the President to United States citizens residing in the District of Columbia.

AMENDMENT 24—No person can be prevented from voting in a federal

election because of failure to pay a poll tax or other tax.

AMENDMENT 26—This amendment extended the right to vote to citizens 18 years of age and older.

As we can see from these amendments the tendency over the years has been toward more and more freedom for the people. It would be impossible, of course, for us to list and explain all of our rights as citizens. Many of our rights are not specifically mentioned in the Constitution, but are merely implied. Changing conditions in our society have caused us to consider our rights in some areas that were unheard of when The Bill of Rights was drafted. We will, however, discuss some of the fundamental rights guaranteed by the Constitution. It is from the spirit of these constitutional rights that all of our rights are derived.

## *THE RIGHT TO FREE EDUCATION*

Thomas Jefferson said, "If a nation expects to be ignorant and free, in a state of civilization, it expects what never was and never will be." Many critics of democracy claim that the masses of people are not capable of governing themselves. Even Plato, in less complex times, advocated government by a group of enlightened "philosopher kings." The success of the deomocratic experiment in America, however, has shown that free people *are* capable of self-government. While every citizen is not expected to be a statesman or lawmaker, he is expected to participate in government. Since all people share the responsibility of government in a democracy, the people need training for citizenship. Their education must enable them to choose and think for themselves. They must be watchful to see that their government protects their rights, and they must use enlightened judgment to choose those who will represent them in their government. Free public education helps to prepare the people to do these things.

The importance of education cannot be overemphasized. When the Commandant of the Marine Corps was asked if a young man should finish his schooling before becoming a Marine, his answer was, "No matter what field you may be considering for the future, my answer to the question would remain the same . . . stay in school! Let nothing prevent you from finishing high school, and if at all possible, go on to college. . . ." Our laws require all children to attend school until they have reached a certain age or have passed a certain grade. Public schools provide twelve years of education to all children at no cost. This gives every person the opportunity to get the kind of education that we all need for responsible citizenship. Public support of education also makes low-cost education available beyond the high school level. State-supported universities, community colleges, and technical schools put higher education within the reach of all who have the interest and the initiative to prepare themselves for better and more productive citizenship.

Public schools in this country have relative freedom in teaching what state and local school boards think is best for the students in their schools. They are not required to present a "party line" or to support any political group. Most school systems provide a wide variety of courses in vocational as well as academic education. Students in public schools also have much freedom of choice not only in selecting courses of study, but through student councils and social and service organizations, they also have a voice in school government. The election of student officers to represent the students in the government of the student body provides valuable experience in the demo-

cratic process. While decisions of the student government may be subject to approval or veto by school administration, they do make the wishes of the students known and generally have a strong influence on school policy.

In addition to the free public schools there are in most large communities a number of schools that are operated independent of the public school system. These are schools that have been established to serve the special interests or needs of certain segments of the population. These independent schools include: kindergartens for children too young for the public schools; church-related schools which place emphasis on religious education that is not provided in the public schools; preparatory schools for those who desire intensive preparation for college; and military schools which stress self-discipline and leadership as well as academic achievement. These schools do not depend on public funds for their operation, but are supported by the groups whose special interests they serve. Many of our great universities, too, were established and are supported by private groups. These private institutions are important not only because they supplement the public institutions in educating our citizens, but also because they stand as proof that Americans enjoy not only free education, but freedom of education.

## *THE RIGHT TO JUSTICE*

The importance placed on the right of every citizen to equal justice under the law is indicated by the fact that four of the first ten amendments in The Bill of Rights deal directly with the process of justice in the courts of law. Amendments 5-8 deal not only with the rights of persons accused of crimes, but also the rights of all citizens to have criminal and civil disputes settled in the courts.

William Howard Taft, a great Chief Justice of the Supreme Court, said that the reason for the existence of the courts is to promote the happiness of all the people by the speedy and careful administration of justice. He believed that the courts were created to help individuals who seek justice.

The Supreme Court alone is named and created by Article III of the Constitution, but the Constitution also gives Congress the authority to establish other courts, and to increase or decrease their number, as the need may arise. From time to time Congress has used that authority to create the lower Federal courts which exist today. By creating the Supreme Court and authorizing the establishment of other Federal courts, the Constitution created the judicial power; that is the power to hear and decide the two classes of cases—criminal and civil.

Certain things which a person may do will harm other persons. To protect all the people from the effect of these acts, the Congress passed laws making them crimes. The laws provide for the punishment of persons who commit these acts. If a person breaks one of these laws, the government will prosecute him in court. This is called a criminal case. Persons convicted in a criminal case may be punished by imprisonment.

It is also possible for a person to take some action which affects the rights of another person. Such action, however, may not be a crime because no criminal law has been broken. In such a case one person can sue the other person in court. This is called a civil case. A person who is found to be wrong in a civil case is never punished by being sent to prison, as in a criminal case, but the court may make him pay a certain sum of money to the other person. Such money payment is called damages.

Our system of justice is based on the

principle that a person is presumed to be innocent of a crime until proven guilty. Because of this presumption of innocence, a person cannot be brought to trial for a serious crime without first having been accused by a Grand Jury following a preliminary hearing of evidence. Such person cannot be made to testify against himself, nor can he be deprived of his life, liberty, or property without a court trial. An accused person is entitled to his freedom from confinement or other punishment while awaiting trial. In serious cases he may be required to post bond to insure his appearance in court. Bond may be denied the accused only when he is considered dangerous to society.

Under our system of justice, the burden of proof rests with the state. It is up to the state to prove beyond any reasonable doubt that an accused person did in fact commit the offense for which he has been accused. Any person so accused is also entitled to have his guilt or innocence determined by a jury of his peers after the due process of law and a fair and impartial hearing of the evidence in the case. The accused has the right to have a lawyer defend him, and if he is unable to afford his own lawyer, it is the duty of the state to provide a competent counsel without cost to the accused. The accused has the right to hear and question those who say he has committed a crime, and all witnesses who testify against him must do so in his presence. The accused also has the right to summon any person to appear in court as a witness to testify in his favor.

Once the accused has been acquitted, he may not be tried again for the same offense. If he is convicted, he may be fined or imprisoned, but he may not be sentenced to cruel or inhuman punishment such as torture, mutilation, or slave labor.

In the totalitarian state crimes are handled in quite a different way. Under the Communist system of justice, any act that is considered disloyal or uncomplimentary to the state or its leaders may be considered a crime. Persons accused of crimes against the state have no guarantee of an impartial trial by a jury. The state not only determines what constitutes a crime, it also determines who will decide upon the guilt or innocence of the accused. Thus the judge and jury are agents of the state whose first interests are with the state and not the accused. If a person is accused of a crime against the state, the burden of proof rests with the accused. The accused is presumed to be guilty until he proves himself innocent. He may not be permitted to face his accusers, and he has no guarantee of a lawyer to help him defend himself. He may be found guilty and sentenced to imprisonment, slave labor, or death without benefit of a jury trial; and there is no appeal.

The Communists claim that theirs is a much more efficient system of justice, and they justify the inequities in their system by claiming that anyone who is not *for* the Communist system must be against it. Their oversimplification of the concepts of right and wrong makes it easy for them to make this rationalization.

The due process of the courts under the democratic system often seems slow and inefficient, but Americans, who take pride in efficiency in other areas, are unwilling to sacrifice the freedom of equal justice under the law for the sake of expedience. The philosophy behind this is that it is better for a hundred guilty people to go free than for one innocent person to be punished for a crime he did not commit.

### *THE RIGHT TO PARTICIPATE IN GOVERNMENT*

Our most important Constitutional

guarantee is the right to participate in the process of government. This right is our most essential one, for it is our best assurance that we will be able to go on enjoying all the others. So long as we the people retain the ultimate power in our own hands it will be impossible for any would-be tyrant to take any other right away from us.

Although the founders of our nation were the first to give it full expression, the idea of representative government was not their invention. Rather it was the culmination of a long historic process, the result of lessons learned through trial and error over the centuries. Each succeeding generation tried to solve its own immediate problems while building on the past and preparing for the future. Each new solution, however, brought unexpected problems and, in time, demands for new and better safeguards. Within recent years, for example, we have recognized the need to extend the right to vote to those eighteen years of age; and we have found it necessary to reassure all Americans that their civil rights may not be infringed because of age, race or sex. We can expect the process of growth and development to continue, for ours is a living Constitution susceptible of change as changing conditions require. In order to see how far we've come, let's review the story of the rise of representative government.

### *RIGHTS AND DUTIES OF CITIZENSHIP*

As you have seen, liberty, security, and equality, the relationship of people to the state and to each other are matters which must be constantly reexamined, redefined, and re-established. Each change in the world around us changes the assumptions we can make and therefore the conclusions we can draw. Once we could define equality as the right of every man to go out into the wilderness and take up as much land as he could use, and we granted him the liberty to do with it as he pleased. Now, with the settlement and development of the country, and the pollution that followed, we must redefine equality as the right of every person to have access to pure food and clean water and we must strictly refuse to allow anyone to put anything into the ground, air or water, that will harm someone else.

We can expect the future to bring similar changes to the world we live in and new problems we cannot now foresee. We can also expect that the citizens of our nations will face these coming problems as we have faced those of the past—as a free people, freely examining the world about us, exchanging ideas and arguments, and striving for a solution acceptable to all of us. But if we are to meet those problems, solve them, and retain our liberties, it is absolutely necessary that every citizen fully understand his rights and duties.

What is the chief duty of a citizen? President John F. Kennedy summed it up very clearly when he said: "Ask not what your country can do for you —ask what you can do for your country." You may well ask yourself: "What can I, as an American, do for my country?".

First, you must be a loyal citizen. You must be willing to defend your country. You should be interested in its welfare and its people. You will want to live a good life. You must respect the rights of others, and obey the laws. You must pay your taxes in return for the many services you receive from the government. You should keep well informed and take an interest in what is going on in your community and in the nation. You should read and listen. You can take action if it is neces-

sary. You can ask your representatives to introduce or support needed legislation. You should continue to learn. It is your duty to vote. You should always remember that our democracy is founded on the idea that all men are created equal, and that they have certain rights, among which are life, liberty, and the pursuit of happiness.

Experience has proven that we cannot enjoy our own liberty unless we also respect the liberty of others. Franklin D. Roosevelt, 32nd President of the United States, used to speak informally by radio to the people in what were called his "fireside chats." He once said that the only sure way to guarantee our own liberty is to have a government strong enough to protect the interests of all the people, and to have the people strong enough and well enough informed to maintain control over their government. People who are well informed can be trusted with their own government. As Jefferson once wrote, ". . . whenever things get so far wrong as to attract their notice, the people, if well informed, may be relied on to set them to rights."

Because of the tremendous progress in communication and transportation, the Atlantic and Pacific Oceans no longer isolate the United States from the rest of the world. It is as if the world had grown smaller. Americans feel that they are part of a world community of nations. They know that the actions of one member of a community affect all of the other members, and that all people must work together in order to live together in peace. Citizens of the United States, therefore, can and should know about the problems, conditions, hopes, and desires of people all around the world.

President Roosevelt pictured a world founded upon our four essential freedoms—freedoms of speech and expression, freedom of religion, freedom from want, and freedom from fear. Freedom-loving people everywhere dream of world peace. The United Nations, with its headquarters in New York City, is working toward this goal.

You will soon take your place as a voting citizen. As a well-informed, intelligent, American citizen you can help. With your knowledge and understanding of national and international problems, you can help the government to make important decisions. Your appreciation and acceptance of people who have opinions, customs, and attitudes different from your own can create good will at home and abroad. You have the responsibility and privilege of building intercultural friendships in your own community.

The continued success, or the failure, of freedom as a way of life and democracy as a form of government rests in the hands of all American citizens. We must, in helping each other, help all nations in the struggle against the common enemies of man: tyranny, poverty, disease, and war itself.

### *VOTING — THE GREATEST RIGHT AND DUTY*

Of all the rights and duties of citizenship, none is so precious or important as the right and duty to vote in each election. As with everything else that truly matters, voting is not a simple task and you do not carry out your duty just by walking into the polling place and pulling a lever. The real obligation can only be met by studying the issues and the candidates so that you can not only make a choice but an enlightened and well considered choice. You may already be old enough to vote. If not, you will be in a very few years. Let us see what is involved in this most fundamental way of participating in your own self government.

To insure the rights of life, liberty, and the pursuit of happiness, the writ-

ers of the Constitution formed a democracy, a government deriving its "just powers from the consent of the governed." The people of the United States are "the governed." They are governed by their own consent which is given when they vote. In a democracy the people first decide and then make known by their votes, who will govern them and how they will be governed. For the American citizen voting is not only a right, it is a duty. By voting, he delegates the authority to govern to others who will represent him in carrying on the work of the government.

*WHO CAN VOTE*

After the Civil War the right to vote was given to former slaves. Under the 15th Amendment to the Constitution, no citizen can be refused the right to vote because of his race, color, or because he has been a slave. The 19th Amendment gave women the right to vote. Before the 26th Amendment, the age limit for voting in most states was 21 years, but that amendment extended the vote to all citizens 18 years and older in Federal elections.

You will always want to use your right to vote. Most states require a citizen to register before election day with election officials in the place where he lives. At that time he must establish his qualifications to vote and have his name placed on the voting list. As soon as you come of age you should register to vote in the community where you make your home. Then, when election time comes, vote—and never fail to vote. It is your duty as a citizen to vote. In this way you use your authority to govern.

*HOW THE FINAL AUTHORITY TO GOVERN IS USED*

By his vote a citizen influences the government in many ways. His vote helps to elect officers who make and enforce the laws of the nation, the state, and the city or town in which he lives.

As a qualified voter, you can vote for or against proposed amendments to the constitution of your state. Often you will be asked to vote on special issues concerning the spending of money for highways, schools, water systems, or other public projects. State constitutions and city charters frequently declare that the right to borrow money above a certain amount must be decided by the voters. Sometimes a state legislature will be unwilling to take final action to pass an especially important law until the citizens first express their approval by voting for it.

When a citizen votes he indicates his own personal choice. However, the will of the majority of voters is expressed in the final results of most elections. A majority means more than one-half of the votes cast. Many elections and public issues in the United States are decided by a majority vote.

In an election three or more candidates will often seek the same public office, and no one candidate may receive a majority of all votes cast. Sometimes, such an election will be decided by a plurality; that is, the winning candidate will be the one who receives the highest number of votes, even though he gets less than a majority. The difference between the number of votes cast for the winning candidate and the number given to the candidate receiving the next highest number of votes is called a plurality.

A citizen has a duty to vote, as well as a right to vote. He should give serious thought before making his choice of candidates. A good citizen votes in every election. Only in this way can we have a government by the people.

## *FORMING OPINIONS*

The decisions which a voter is required to make on important issues are a serious responsibility. Such decisions may affect our lives, liberty, and property. But, meeting the responsibility of making decisions helps free people keep their freedoms. Every citizen has a duty to keep himself informed about candidates and issues. Before he forms opinions and makes decisions, he should read, listen, and think, then he can vote for what he believes is right.

## *SHARING OPINIONS*

Although a citizen can and should vote as he wishes, he ought to be interested in what other people are thinking and saying. By obtaining the opinions of others concerning issues in government, the citizen can learn all sides of a question and this will help him make a good decision when he casts his vote. Citizens can learn about the opinions of others in many ways. Public issues and government matters can be discussed at home, in a person's neighborhood, and at work. Much can be learned about how others think by watching television, listening to the radio, and reading newspapers and other printed materials.

An intelligent voter reads more than one paper, magazine, or book, in order to get different opinions about candidates, party platforms, and issues.

A citizen of this country should want to know what other voters think about questions of the day, but the final decision as to how he will vote should be his own. However, his decision should be made only after he has heard all sides of the various questions.

## *THE POLITICAL PARTY SYSTEM*

A citizen can also learn how others think by becoming acquainted with the political party system. A political party is a group of people who work together as an organization to get the kind of government action they believe in and want.

Political parties have helped to make our plan of government work. They are an extension of the democratic ideas first developed by the Constitution. Although the Constitution makes provisions for the election and appointment of persons to office in government, it says nothing about how persons shall be nominated, or chosen to be considered, for these positions. Nominees are usually chosen by political parties in accordance with methods and practices that have been developed over the years. The methods by which candidates are nominated are just as much a part of our plan of government as if they had been written into the Constitution. They are a part of the American tradition which has added to the growth of the Constitution without its amendment. Without them, provisions of the Constitution could not be put into effect.

## *PARTY PLATFORM*

Members and leaders of each party prepare a statement setting forth the aims and objectives of the party. This statement is called the party platform. The platform makes known the position of the party and its members on important public questions and affairs of government. It may call for more, fewer, or different taxes. It may recommend changes in the powers delegated by the people to their elected representatives.

## *NOMINATION OF CANDIDATES*

Most men and women who seek election to public offices are nominated by a political party. Once they are nominated, they are called candidates for election.

Candidates of a political party may be nominated at a primary election. This is a special election at which the registered voters of each party are given the opportunity to choose candidates who will represent their party in a general election. In a primary election, citizens can vote only for the nominees of the party with which they are registered.

Candidates can also be nominated by convention. Members of a political party select and send delegates to a meeting place. After considering the qualifications of possible candidates, the delegates choose those who will represent the party. The candidates for President and Vice President are nominated in this manner at a national convention.

A number of states allow a person to be nominated by petition. This is done by having qualified voters sign a petition requesting that a certain citizen's name be placed on the ballot. Men and women nominated in this way are called independent candidates.

### *THE VOTER AND HIS PARTY*

Each political party would like to have the voters elect its candidates to a majority of the public offices. Such a majority would give the party the power to carry out its aims and objectives as stated in the party platform.

Each political party tries to gain the support of as many voters as possible. One way used to gain public support is by holding meetings to which all voters are invited. Copies of the party platform are given to the voters at the meetings. Members and leaders of the party make speeches and urge the voters to elect its candidates. Booklets are also given out which show what the men in office have, or have not, done and what the candidates of the party promise to do if they are elected, or reelected. A citizen may join any party and may attend its meetings and serve on committees. He can make speeches and give copies of the party platform to other voters. He can ask voters to support the candidate of his party.

Joining a political party is one of the most effective ways for a citizen to take part in government. However, it is not the only way. A citizen is not required to become a member of a political party. In fact, many wish to be, and they are, listed as independent voters. A voter is free to change to another party if he wishes to do so. He does this at registration time.

### *ELECTION DAY*

After a candidate has been nominated to run for public office, he must be elected by the people. This is done at a general election. A general election is one in which only one candidate from among those nominated is chosen by the voters to fill the office for which they all ran. In a general election a person may vote for the candidates of any party.

### *THE SPIRIT OF DEMOCRACY IN THE UNITED STATES*

Your duty as a good citizen does not end when you vote at the polls. After the election is over, you should make sure that the person who was elected is doing his work well. You should compare what he is doing with what he promised he would do. You may find that he is not keeping his promises or that he does not truly represent your ideas or interests in government. If you decide that you made a mistake in voting for your candidate, you may correct your error in judgment by voting for another candidate at the next election. This is the way public questions are decided in the United States by vote—not by force. This is the spirit of democracy.

# THOMAS BRADLEY
# MAYOR OF LOS ANGELES

Thomas Bradley, elected the first black mayor of the city of Los Angeles in June of 1973, is a prime example of a man who rose to success by his own determination and integrity. Mayor Bradley is a modest man; he doesn't call attention to the fact that he is the top elected black official in the United States, but he is very much aware of the responsibility of the job. A political moderate who moved from police lieutenant to member of the City Council to the mayor's office, Bradley is described as quiet-spoken, cooly reasonable, and "unflappable." He appears at all times dignified and unruffled, but he still retains a sense of humor which makes him a likable person who appeals to all voters, mod and conservative, young and old, black and white. His style as a politician is not so much black as it is gray, and his main theme in all his efforts is his own moderation. Tom Bradley is deeply committed to working through the political system for change.

Born in Calvert, Texas in 1918, Bradley is the son of a sharecropper who moved his family west to Los Angeles and became a railroad Pullman porter. Young Tom went to an almost exclusively white high school and became a football and track star. Classmates called him "Long Tom" because of his height, six feet four inches. Even as a high school student he was described as being "completely at peace with himself." Bradley went on to attend the University of California at Los Angeles on an athletic scholarship. It was at UCLA that he met his wife; the Bradleys now have two grown daughters. When he finished at UCLA, Bradley joined the Los Angeles police force, where he was to remain for 21 years, attaining the rank of lieutenant. As a policeman he gained the reputation for outtalking and outrunning offenders, but never using any rough treatment. His style was to make peace, and he used this talent in years of work in community relations, trying to bridge the gap between the police and the ghetto.

Indicative of Thomas Bradley's determination and diligence is the law degree he managed to earn in the evenings during his years spent with the police force. He describes himself as a "basically a cautious, conservative man," and when he promises the voters that he will devote his time and energies to the duties of his office, then that is exactly what he will do. In his twenty-one years with the police force and his ten years on the City Council he has proved himself to be a worker who puts attention to duty above all other considerations. A key feature of his personality which has been noted continuously by all those who know him has been his steady, mature calmness; he is consistently the same man under any conditions—low-key and detached, but constantly concerned.

One manner of evaluation to use when judging a politician is to look at the people who support him. Bradley, as mayor of the nation's third largest city, obviously convinced a large num-

*Tom Bradley*

ber of people that he is what he says he is, not a black politician, but simply a man deserving of the vote of Los Angeles citizens. In his first campaign, running for a seat on the City Council, Tom Bradley ran for office in his racially mixed neighborhood, and won. In all his public appearances Mr. Bradley has deliberately played down his color, although his political opponents have not ignored the fact that he is black. But the important point is that Bradley demonstrates the integrity and intelligence which people want in a public leader. In the city of Los Angeles only eighteen percent of the population is black, but Tom Bradley has dedicated himself to working with and for a coalition of all peoples, the black, the white, and the Mexican-American. His stated goal is to prove that the American system can be made to work, without corruption and irresponsibility. Apparently the citizens of Los Angeles believed that Bradley had the leadership ability to make the system work, for he won the election for mayor with a 56% majority, gaining the votes of 92% of the city's blacks, 51% of the Mexican-Americans, and half the whites.

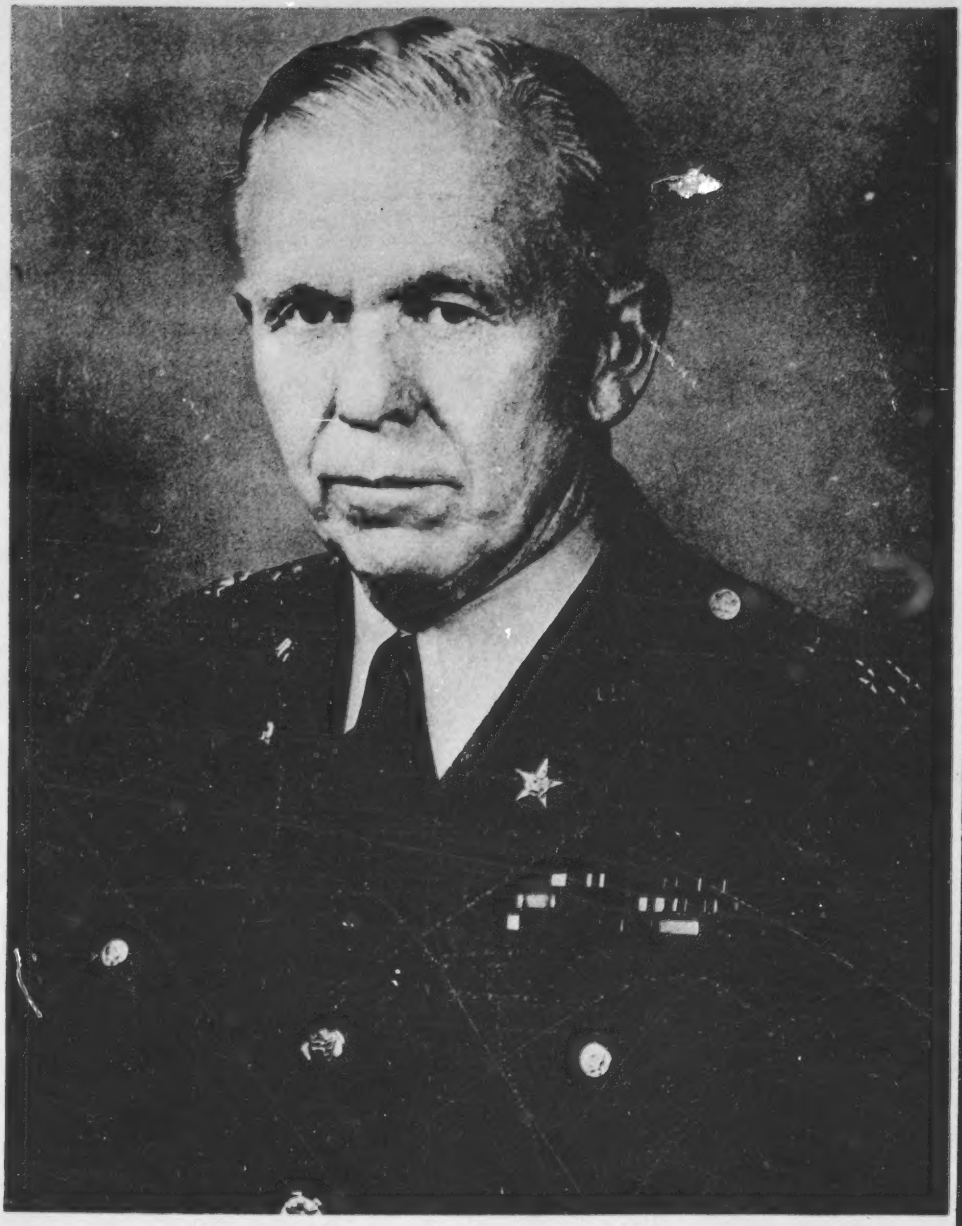
In his desire to serve the people of the metropolitan area Bradley, as mayor, dedicated his efforts to improving aid to the school system, and to stricter law enforcement. He has devoted much effort to helping drug addicts, to providing community patrols to curb street crime, to providing constructive public hearings and investigations, to improving a public transit system, and to limiting the growth of the city's population. Tom Bradley has also shown that he has a concern for conservation and ecology, for he has worked hard on a plan to avoid overdevelopment of the Santa Monica Mountains. Thomas Bradley is, in short, a dedicated public servant, elected leader of approximately three million people, who believes that people can be united. In Mr. Bradley's words, he "wants to be mayor." He also believes that there is the possibility of the nation having a black presidential candidate within his lifetime. Perhaps the moderate, dedicated leader which Bradley has proved himself to be can help that possibility become fact.

Thomas Bradley has spent his entire life depending on his abiding faith in honesty, self-reliance, and hard work. He has pursued the old-fashioned American dream, and made it come true; he is a poor boy who made good. Mr. Bradley views his job as mayor in much the same light as he saw his work as a police officer and a member of the City Council; he sees the role of mayor as one who is constantly "demonstrating leadership."

# CHALLENGES IN LEADERSHIP

PART THREE

## MILITARY ORIENTATION AND ORGANIZATION



*General of the Army George C. Marshall (1880-1959) began his Army career in 1902. He was the first of many Army officers who performed valuable service to the nation as a military officer knowledgeable in world affairs. During the General's 45 years of service as an Army officer, he performed duties in the infantry, in training commands, in operations and staff billets, culminating with his time spent as the Army Chief of Staff during WW II. In the late 1940's and early 1950's, Marshall was appointed first to the job of Secretary of State, and then to Secretary of Defense.*

CHAPTER 10

# UNITED STATES ARMED FORCES

For 200 years thousands of American men—and women—have not only sought a life of high adventure but have also felt a deep need to commit their lives to a larger purpose. Many of these have found a place for themselves and their talents in our armed forces. Their hard work, courage, and self-sacrifice have made it possible for other Americans to develop our country in safety and comfort, free from foreign interference or intimidation.

The image of the American soldier portrayed by the Colonial militiaman—the citizen-patriot motivated by high ideals—continues to be a valid picture of the human qualities the armed forces seek to perpetuate in their members. However, the image of the soldier as a man drilling with a gun no longer gives a fully accurate picture of the work he does. Like other professions, the profession of arms has developed, specialized and expanded until this chapter has barely enough space to give a history of its development and explain how it is organized, how it functions, what different jobs its various arms perform, and the multitude of skills needed to get them done. This chapter will suggest something of the wide range of opportunities available to those who seek the challenge of a career in the armed forces.

## UNITED STATES ARMY

The U.S. Army was established in June 1775 by the Second Continental Congress. From the time of its establishment to the present, the U.S. Army has played a major role in protecting our national securiy.

### *PRIMARY FUNCTIONS*

The mission of the Department of the Army and the composition of its forces are described in the "functions paper" (Department of Defense Directive 5100.1) as follows:

> The Department of the Army is responsible for the preparation of land forces necessary for the effective prosecution of war except as otherwise assigned and in accordance with integrated mobilization plans, for the expansion of the peacetime components of the Army to meet the needs of war.
>
> The Army, within the Department of the Army, includes land combat and service forces and such aviation and water transport as may be organic therein.

In order to carry out its mission successfully, the Army has certain primary functions which include the following, as stated in the Department of Defense Directive:

1. To organize, train, and equip Army forces for the conduct of prompt and sustained combat operations on land. . . .
2. To organize, train, and equip Army air defense units. . . in accordance with doctrines established by the Joint Chiefs of Staff.
3. To organize and equip, in coordination with the other Services, and to provide Army forces for joint amphibious and airborne operations. . . .

4. To provide an organization capable of furnishing adequate, timely, and reliable intelligence for the Army.
5. To provide forces for the occupations of territories abroad, to include initial establishment of miliary government pending transfer of this responsibility to other authority.
6. To formulate doctrines and procedures for the organizing, equipping, training, and employment of forces operating on land, except that the. . . employment of Marine Corps Units for amphibious operations shall be a function of the Department of the Navy. . . .

*COLLATERAL AND CIVIL FUNCTIONS*

Forces which are developed and trained to perform primary functions are often employed to support and supplement the other services in carrying out their primary functions. These are called "collateral functions." A specific collateral function of the Army is to interdict enemy sea and air power and communications through operations on or from land.

The Army also has certain civil functions which include the following, as stated in the Department of Defense Directive:

1. The administration and operation of the Panama Canal.
2. The authorized civil works program, including projects for improvement of navigation, flood control, beach erosion control, and other water resource developments in the United States, its territories, and its possessions.
3. Other civil activities prescribed by law (such as providing support for Civil Defense activities).

*SEPARATE MAJOR COMMANDS*

The Army has 12 major commands and operational agencies. Six of these commands and agencies operate under exclusive Army control. Six are component commands within the unified commands. A unified command is a command composed of components of two or more services under a single commander. The major commands provide the principle command structure of the Army, and they include all the field headquarters forces, Reserve components, installations, activities, and functions under the control or supervision of the Secretary of the Army. The Reserve components include both the Army National Guard and the Army Reserve. The responsibilities of some of the major commands are discussed below.

**U.S. Army Force Command (FORSCOM).** FORSCOM is the Army component of Readiness Command, a joint Army-Air Force command under the Joint Chiefs of Staff. The Commanding General, U.S. Army Force Command, commands the three numbered armies within the continental United States (these include the First, Fifth, and Sixth Armies). The numbered armies are basically territorial commands charged with mobilizing, organizing, training, and equipping Army forces. The numbered armies also plan and conduct operations involving ground defense, civil disturbances, disaster relief, and civil defense survival and recovery operations.

FORSCOM also includes all of the Army Reserve forces, including the U.S. Army Reserve, and training activities of the Army National Guard.

**Training and Doctrine Command (TRADOC).** Training and Doctrine Command is responsible for the development, direction, management, and supervision of individual training of the Active Army and Reserve Components. TRADOC is also responsible for formulating and documenting current doctrine for the Army, as well as anticipating the nature of land warfare in the future,

*This is an aerial view of the United States Military Academy at West Point, New York, on the banks of the Hudson River. West Point is the service academy of the U.S. Army. Seen in the picture are the billeting, athletic, and educational facilities of the Academy, and the Corps of Cadets in formation on the parade field.*

and determining the kinds of Army Forces and material needed, and suggesting how Army Forces should be employed. As the principle agent for the Department of the Army for training and education, the Commanding General of TRADOC commands the Army School System and the Army ROTC. Responsibilities of this command also include the development and dissemination of training and doctrine manuals and literature for the Army.

**U.S. Army Materiel Command.** The Commanding General, U.S. Army Material Command, is responsible for the integrated management of material and services required by the Army. He is charged with the research, development, engineering, testing, evaluation, production, procurement, inventory management, distribution, transportation, maintenance, and disposal of material in response to approved programs of the Department of the Army.

**U.S. Army Security Agency.** The Commanding General, U.S. Army Security Agency, commands forces which perform specialized technical functions relating to national security.

**U.S. Army Strategic Communications Command.** The Commanding General, U.S. Army Strategic Communications Command, directs and controls Army telecommunications elements which operate strategic radio, wire, and cable facilities, including those supporting the

Defense Communications System. He is the central point of contact within the Army for dealing with the Director, Defense Communications Agency, on operational communications matters.

**U.S. Army Intelligence Command.** The Commanding General, U.S. Army Intelligence Command, exercises central control of counterintelligence activities throughout the continental United States, and provides counterintelligence support to all U.S. Army elements within the continental United States. This support includes personnel security investigations and counterintelligence operations, surveys, and inspections. To carry out its mission, the Army Intelligence Command has several Intelligence Corps Groups dispersed througout the continental United States. Their areas of responsibility correspond to the areas of the numbered armies and the Military District of Washingon. The Army Intelligence Command also controls the intelligence and counterintelligence resources at the command headquarters at Fort Holabird, Maryland.

**Military Traffic Management and Terminal Service.** The Commander, Military Traffic Management and Terminal Service (MTMTS), directs military traffic, land transportation, and common-user ocean terminals. He provides for the movement of all Department of Defense sponsored freight, cargo, and passenger traffic in the continental United States. He also controls all common-user ocean terminals and services for moving cargo through other military or commercial ocean terminal facilities; and aids in transportation planning for the unified and specified commands as well as for all the mititary services.

## *ARMS AND SERVICES*

To provide for military occupational specialties, Army officer personnel and Army units are divided into branches. The branches of the Army are grouped into *arms* and *services*. The *arms* are those branches whose primary mission is combat. The *services* are those branches whose primary mission is combat service support and/or administration of the Army as a whole. Certain branches have primary missions in both fields. The *arms* are Infantry, Corps of Engineers, Artillery, Armor, and Signal Corps.

The *services* are Adjutant General's Corps, Corps of Engineers, Finance Corps, Quartermaster Corps, Army Medical Services, Chaplains, Judge Advocate General's Corps, Ordnance Corps, Signal Corps, Chemical Corps, Military Police Corps, Women's Army Corps, Transportation Corps, Army Intelligence, and the Army Security Agency.

## *OPERATIONAL ORGANIZATION*

Large Army operational forces are usually organized into army groups, field armies, or corps. These larger Army forces are composed of divisions, which are the basic Army units of combined arms and services. None of the various Army operational units has a fixed composition, and all of them can be tailored to the requirements of a specific mission or type of operation. Army operational forces may be permanently assigned, temporarily attached, or assigned to provide support to a subordinate command for as long as necessary. Army forces usually contain some elements that have a nuclear capability, and hence are able to engage immediately in either nuclear or nonnuclear conflict. Army groups, field armies, and corps can each serve as the nucleus of a joint force which also includes significant elements of one or more of the other Armed Services.

**Army Group.** An army group is normally organized to direct the operations of two or more field armies. Its responsibilities are primarily tactical and

include planning and allocation of resources.

**Field Army.** The field army directs tactical operations and provides for the administrative support of assigned and attached units. It consists of a headquarters, required headquarters personnel, a variable number of attached corps, a variable number of divisions normally attached to corps, and other attached units—combat, combat support, and combat service support. A field army may also be organized with a small number of divisions and then it may not include corps-level command sections.

**Army Corps.** The corps is essentially a large task force, consisting of a variable number of divisions and other combat and combat support units. Frequently a corps is reinforced by attaching combat service support elements. A reinforced corps approaches the capabilities and characteristics of a small field army and is referred to as an independent corps. When it operates as part of a field army, however, a corps normally has few combat service support responsibilities, and it usually receives support directly from field army units.

**The Army Division.** The division is the basic Army unit of the combined arms and services. Its mission is the destruction or control of enemy military forces and the seizure or domination of critical land areas, their population, and their resources. As with all larger Army operational organizations, a division's size and composition depends upon its mission and the type of environment in which it will operate.

The Army maintains five kinds of divisions: infantry, mechanized infantry, armored, airborne, and airmobile. These are formed by adding to the division base a varying mix of combat (maneuver) battalions.

A division usually contains three brigades and eight to twelve combat (maneuver) battalions. Nevertheless, a division's mission may require only two brigade headquarters and as few as six maneuver elements. Conversely, as many as fifteen combat (maneuver) battalions assigned to three brigade headquarters in the division base may be required.

**The Army Brigade.** The Army brigade is the principle intermediate control element in an Army division. It consists of from two to five combat battalions. Two or three brigade headquarters are always contained in the division base.

**The Division Base.** The division base contains the elements common to all Army divisions: the division headquarters; the division artillery; other required combat and combat support units, such as an armored cavalry squadron, an aviation battalion or group, a signal battalion, an engineer battalion, a military police company, a support command to provide combat service support; and, normally, three brigade headquarters. Although the same types of units always make up the division base, the equipment, organization and operating methods of these units may vary with different types of divisions and different missions.

The division field artillery is organized to insure direct support of the brigades as well as flexible general support of the division. Three artillery battalions are provided to make one available to each brigade.

### *COMBAT (MANEUVER) BATTALIONS*

These are the building blocks which, depending upon their type and the way they are combined, determine the type of division. The echelons below battalion level in an Infantry battalion are the company, the platoon, and the squad. In the Cavalry, battalion-sized units are called "squadrons", and company-

sized units are referred to as "troops." In the Artillery, company-sized units are called "batteries."

A maneuver element or battalion is distinguished by its ability to employ fire and maneuver to engage the enemy in combat. Its mission may be to destroy or capture the enemy, seize control or deny terrain, protect a large force, or gain information. *All other components of land forces exist to support maneuver elements.* Maneuver elements are basically of three types: Infantry, Armor, and Cavalry.

**Infantry.** The basic Infantry function is to close with and destroy the enemy by fire and maneuver and shock action. The essential characteristic of the Infantry maneuver element is its ability to fight on foot in all types of terrain and under all conditions of weather, coupled with its ability to move and fight with any means of mobility provided. For example, Infantry provided with air transport can conduct airmobile operations.

**Armor.** The basic Armor function is to attack, disrupt, and destroy enemy forces by firepower, mobility, and shock effect. These combined characteristics give Armor great striking power. The Armored vehicles of these units enable men to fight mounted and to maneuver through fireswept or chemically, biologically, and radiologically contaminated areas.

**Cavalry.** The basic Cavalry functions are reconnaissance and security. To discharge these functions properly, Cavalry elements must possess a higher degree of mobility than related friendly and enemy combat forces. Cavalry combat elements can fight dismounted or from ground or air vehicles.

The maneuver elements employ a wide range of weapons, from shoulder-fired semi-automatic rifles to the latest tank-mounted guns. Between these two extremes are small one or two-man rocket launchers, antitank recoilless rifles, machine guns, mortars, truck-mounted 20mm machine guns and heavy mortars, and the firepower of armored vehicles and tanks. Some of the latest model armored vehicles are light but extremely rugged, capable of being airdropped. When the situation calls for it, these maneuver elements may also be assigned the means for delivery of low-yield nuclear weapons.

*ARTILLERY*

The primary source of fire support of the maneuver elements is artillery. The Army divides its artillery into two main classes: field artillery and air-defense artillery.

**Field Artillery.** Field artillery includes an array of weapons ranging from the *Pershing* missile down to the 105-mm howitzer, employed to deliver supporting and reinforcing fire. With the exception of its two largest missiles, the *Pershing* and the *Sergeant,* which are always employed at higher command levels, field artillery can be either assigned to divisions, or directly controlled at corps level. The choice made depends upon the battlefield situation. The artillery assigned to a division is considered the minimum required for combat. That employed at corps level, which can amount to 15 to 25 battalions plus control and supporting elements, reinforces the firepower of divisions where needed.

Field artillery, with its great firepower, is the principle Army agency for delivering indirect fire on ground targets. Field artillery units, whether or not they are part of a division, should be considered distinct from the maneuver elements described above. Their firepower *supports* the operations of the ground-gaining maneuver elements. Specifically, the mission of field artillery is *to provide continuous and timely fire*

*support to the force commander by destroying or neutralizing, in priority, those targets that jeopardize the accomplishment of his mission.*

Artillery weapons are classified as either cannon or missiles. Missiles, in turn, are classed as either guided missiles or rockets; the latter is aimed by aiming the launcher and cannot be guided in flight. Artillery weapons are further classified by method of transport—either towed, self-propelled (mounted on tracked vehicles), or aerial. Differences in employment between maneuver element weapons and artillery weapons are more significant than the technical differences between the weapons themselves. A light machine gun on the ground, for instance, is an *infantry* weapon. Mounted on a helicopter for the purpose of delivering supporting fire where needed, it is an aerial *artillery weapon.*

Ground cannons employed either at division or corps level range from the 105-mm towed or self-propelled howitzers to the 155-mm and 175mm self-propelled long-range guns, and massive 8-inch howitzers. The 8-inch howitzer is capable of firing either conventional or nuclear rounds. *Honest John* and *Little John* rockets have similar capabilities. *Honest John* can project a conventional or nuclear punch up to 25 miles. The *Sergeant* missile, employed only at the field army level, has a range of 400 miles.

**Air Defense Artillery.** The Army's air defense artillery is closely coordinated with the tactical air elements of the U.S. Air Force. Air defense artillery is organized especially for its mission, independently of the structure of offensive forces and field artillery. Its job is to protect assigned areas according to their air defense priorities. Using a variety of sophisticated ground to air missiles, the mission of the air defense artillery is to destroy, nullify, or reduce the effectiveness of attack or surveillance by hostile aircraft and missiles after they are airborne.

## *COMBAT SUPPORT ELEMENTS*

Although maneuver and fire support elements are the primary sources of the combat power of a force, important elements of power are provided by combat support forces.

Normally combat support elements are assigned at division level and above and are either attached to, or placed in support of subordinate units to perform required tasks. Some of the combat support elements are described below.

**Signal.** Signal combat support embraces communications and electronics, and photography. Signal communications combat support provides electrical, electronic, and messenger communications for all Army forces in a theater of operations as far forward as combat brigade headquarters. Units forward of brigade headquarters provide their own communications using organic equipment and personnel.

**Engineer.** Engineer combat support includes construction, destruction, nuclear demolition, and other operations that facilitate the offensive effort and increase the defensive strength of field forces.

**Transportation.** Transportation combat support includes surface and air transportation which is provided combat and combat support units in support of tactical operations.

**Chemical.** Chemical combat support provides technical advice and assistance to commanders and staffs in the employment of, and defense against, chemical agents, flame, smoke, and radioactive fallout.

**Military Police.** Military police combat service support includes traffic control in the forward areas, physical security,

and rapid collection and evacuation of prisoners of war and civilian internees.

**Psychological Operations.** Psychological operations combat support includes all measures taken to influence the behavior of enemy troops and hostile, friendly, or neutral foreign populations.

### *ARMY AVIATION*

An agreement reached in 1966 between the Army and the Air Force defined aviation roles and missions of the two Services, and their respective emphasis on aircraft types. The agreement affirmed Army emphasis on rotary-wing aircraft (helicopters) for both airlift and fire support, limiting Army fixed-wing operations to light planes for reconnaissance, fire direction, command, and administrative uses. As with other elements, Army aviation is organized both as divisional and nondivisional, most of the latter elements are available for attachment to divisions as needed. The airmobile division has an aviation group of three helicopter battalions. Other divisions have one aviation battalion for general aviation support, plus smaller units for various specific tasks. Aviation functions, besides transport, include command and control; battlefield surveillance and aerial observation; aerial fire support; and aeromedical evacuation.

### *SPECIAL WARFARE*

The Army has a well-defined role in special warfare and is organized to fulfill it. The counterinsurgency role assigned to the U.S. Army includes the following:

1. Organizing, equipping, and providing Army forces for joint counterinsurgency operations, and for support of country counterinsurgency programs.

2. Developing, in cooordination with the other services, the doctrine, tactics, procedures, techniques and equipment which are employed by the Army and the Marine Corps, but excluding related doctrine, tactics, techniques, and equipment as are employed primarily by landing forces in amphibious operations for counterinsurgency purposes, for which the Marine Corps has primary interest.

3. Developing language-trained and area-oriented United States Army forces as necessary for possible employment, in training, or in providing operational advice or operational support to indigenous security forces.

Much of the training of the normal Army training program is applicable to combat against both a conventional enemy and a guerrilla force, with little or no emphasis on the seizure and retention of terrain. Because of this, the entire force structure of the U.S. Army can be readily adapted and trained to conduct the measures and activities related to counterinsurgency or stability operations.

The Army has, of course, special action forces (SAF) developed and strategically located to support commanders of unified commands. The SAF is a provisional, organized, specially trained, area oriented, and partially language qualified ready force for the support of cold, limited, and general war operations. The SAF is backed by overseas general purpose units of brigade size. These units are able to perform the same operations as the SAF detachments, but with greater combat support capabilities. Another backup element consists of Army forces, based in the United States, which are of brigade size, area oriented, partially language trained for deployment if needed by a unified commander.

## UNITED STATES AIR FORCE

Military leaders have offered many definitions of "air power," but Brigadier General William Mitchell provided one of the most useful of them when he said that airpower is "the ability to do something in or through the air." Under this definition airpower is essentially a combination of the air and space vehicles, the men who man and direct them, and the doctrine and tactics that describe what airpower can do. Although every branch of the Armed Forces has some degree of airpower, the major capability for doing things "in or through the air" rests with the United States Air Force.

## AIR FORCE HISTORY

Air Force history begins with the Wright Brothers, Orville and Wilbur. They believed that man could travel places a lot faster—by flying. While other people laughed at their ideas, the Wright Brothers worked long and hard to design and build what was called an airplane.

On 17 December 1903, at a place near Kitty Hawk in North Carolina, the Wright Brothers made their dream come true. On that day, Orville Wright flew their airplane in the first powered flight made by man. He didn't fly very far—only 120 feet. That is not even far enough for an over-the-fence home run in Little League baseball.

Far-sighted men saw the military possibilities of powered flight. On 1 August 1907, an Aeronautical Division was established within the Army Signal Corps to determine military uses for the "flying machine." About six months later the Wrights were given a contract to build the first American military airplane. When the United States entered World War I in April 1917, the military had received 142 aircraft.

### *WORLD WAR I*

American flying units began arriving in France in the fall of 1917. Men and machines met the challenge, and airpower played an important role in the Allied victory. When the war ended on 11 November 1918, there were 45 American squadrons with 767 pilots, 481 observers, 23 gunners, and 740 airplanes. During the course of the war American pilots flew more than 13,000 pursuit flights, 6,600 observation flights, and dropped 275,000 pounds of explosives on 150 bombing raids. United States losses included 357 planes and 35 balloons.

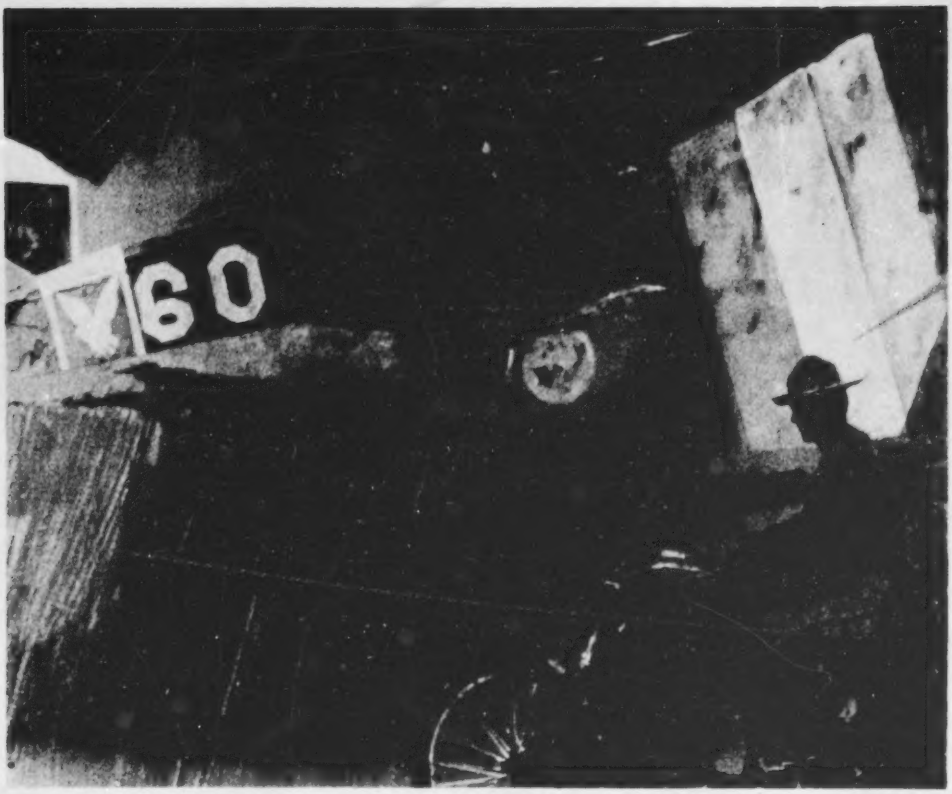
### *BETWEEN WARS*

The war ended almost as suddenly as it began, and the United States returned to a hopeful peace. In civilian life, some returning airmen found jobs as airmail pilots. Some found jobs with the new passenger airlines. Still others thrilled millions of children and their parents at aerial stunt shows that became very popular around the country.

Those who remained in the Air Corps helped make airpower what it is today. The important role they had played in World War I prompted the Congress on 4 June 1920, to create the Air Service as a separate branch of the Army. This new air branch was authorized 1,516 officers and 16,000 enlisted men.

General William "Billy" Mitchell in 1921 began his controversial fight for an independent air force. Mitchell felt that airpower would dominate in any future war. General Mitchell was not completely successful, but on 2 July 1926, the Air Service became the Army Air Corps by Act of Congress.

These early pioneers added many achievements to the development of modern aviation. They completed the first airplane-to-airplane aerial refueling flight. They established a new en-




*From its beginning as the Army Air Corps, flying biplanes such as the one pictured above, the United States Air Force has grown to a modern service offering every possible type of aviation support to the nation. The extensive Air Force inventory includes interceptors, bombers, helicopters, transports and satellites.*

durance record by staying airborne for 151 hours, and they flew bombers from Washington, D.C., to Alaska and back to demonstrate the potential of the airplane as a strategic weapon. It was during this same period that Charles A. Lindberg made his 1927 solo nonstop flight from New York to Paris in the single-engine "Spirit of Saint Louis."

As the threat of another war arrived in the 1930's, newer, faster, and bigger airplanes were designed and built. When Hitler marched into Poland in 1939, the Army Air Corps had 17 bases and 4 depots. Two years later there were 114 major installations, and approval had been granted to build 20 more.

*WORLD WAR II*

The Japanese attack on Pearl Harbor on 7 December 1941 started a new era in the air. At first the Air Force was cast primarily in a defensive role. Then Lieutenant Colonel Jimmy Doolittle led carrier-based North American B-25 Air Force bombers in an attack on the Japanese mainland. They struck industrial targets in Tokyo, Yokohama, Yokosuka, Nagoya and Kobe.

In Europe the Eighth Air Force made its first assault on the enemy on 17 August 1942, when 12 B-17s bombed Rouen, France. The Ninth Air Force's fighter-bombers spearheaded General George S. Patton's lightning drive

through France and Germany. In the Mediterranean, the Fifteenth Air Force hit strategic targets in Northern Italy, Czechoslovakia, Austria, Hungary, Poland, Rumania, Germany, France and the Balkans. The Twelfth Air Force supported Allied advances in North Africa, Sicily, Southern France, and Italy; its bombers hammered at German and Italian shipping and singlehandedly forced the German garrison on Pantelleria to surrender in June 1943.

During the whole European conflict, more than 750,000 bomber and approximately 1,000,000 fighter sorties were flown. (A sortie is an operational flight by one airplane. A flight of five aircraft on the same mission would constitute five sorties.) On D-Day alone, American airmen flew more than 8,000 sorties. In the European theater, U.S. airmen dropped 1,500,000 tons of bombs and destroyed more than 30,000 enemy aircraft, while losing about 18,000 aircraft.

The Air Force then concentrated its strength in the Pacific. Our forces had been island-hopping. While we were attacking Japan, China and Burma were starting to benefit from the airlift that extended over the hazardous Himalayas, or the "Hump" route, as it was known. From the early days in the China-Burma-India theater, the Air Force was gaining experience upon which future military airlift planning was to be based.

American airpower smashed the industrial and military targets throughout Japan. With Japan reeling from these attacks, American airpower delivered the knockout blow, the atomic bomb. The results are now history. This weapon was so potent that ground troops never had to be landed on Japan's shores before the surrender.

*POST-WAR YEARS*

Military airpower had become so important that the U.S. Air Force, once a part of the Army, was made a separate part of the Department of Defense on September 1947.

The Air Force's first big test after World War II came during the Berlin blockade of 1948-49. Soviet forces controlled East Germany, which surrounds West Berlin. The Communists thought they could force the United States and its Allies to leave the city by refusing to let trains or trucks cross their territory. Berlin was cut off from the outside world. The people needed food, clothing, coal for their furnaces, and other supplies to stay alive. There was only one way to get these supplies to them. They had to be flown in by cargo planes. During "Operation Vittles," as the Berlin Airlift was called, more than a quarter of a million flights were made into and out of the city. More than two million tons of supplies were delivered before the Communists finally stopped their blockade.

Another threat to world peace came in 1950 when the North Korean Communists invaded the Republic of Korea. The Air Force quickly rallied its force for its initial mission—to evacuate American nationals from the danger zone. As the battle tide rolled back and forth, the Air Force once again proved the value of using airpower to hit the enemy behind the lines, of close air support for ground forces, and of air supply for isolated land operations. Fighting in the air, Air Force jets shot down North Korean MIG-15s at a 10-to-1 rate. Even though the North Korean and Chinese Communists had more combat troops than the United Nations forces, they were not able to conquer the Republic of Korea. U.S. airpower helped to stop them.

A second Berlin crisis deveolped in 1961 after Communist forces had constructed the infamous Berlin Wall. To reinforce U.S. NATO forces, more than 200 aircraft were flown to Europe by the Air National Guard in the largest

single oversea deployment of fighters ever accomplished.

It was in October 1962 that the Air Force discovered Soviet missile bases in Cuba. During the crisis that followed, the Air Force also photographed from the air the dismantling of these bases—as Soviet authorities ended the missile threat.

And in 1965, the Air Force came to the aid of the Dominican Republic, faced with a Communist revolution. It flew in military forces of the United States and other members of the Organization of American States— a group of nations banded together to insure peace throughout Latin America.

Recently, Air Force people were part of the U.S. and Allied forces helping the free people of Southeast Asia in their fight against the Communists. We were in Southeast Asia to defend a nation's right to choose its own kind of government. The people had chosen to resist the efforts of the Communists to control them. This is why they asked the United States for help.

The U.S. Air Force had varied roles in Southeast Asia. Our airmen were supporting ground forces with aircraft like the sleek F-4 *Phantom II* fighter and the giant B-52 *Stratofortress* bomber. Other airmen were flying and maintaining transports that delivered supplies and returned the wounded to the United States. Air Force helicopter crews have rescued hundreds of downed pilots. And other Air Force people were kept busy caring for the sick; building roads, hospitals, schools, and orphanages; and teaching young people to care for themselves.

These are highlights in the history of the U.S. Air Force. Aviation has come a long way since the days of the Wright Brothers. To illustrate, the newest transport aircraft in the U.S. Air Force, the C-5 *Galaxy*, is wider from wingtip to wingtip than the distance of the Wright Brothers' first flight.

## THE AIR FORCE MISSION

The specific mission of the United States Air Force is spelled out in Title 10 of the U.S. Code, Section 8062, which deals with the establishment of the Air Force:

The mission of the Department of the Air Force is to provide an Air Force that is capable, in conjunction with other Armed Forces, of preserving the peace and security of the United States, providing for its defense, supporting the national policies, implementing the national objectives, and overcoming any nation responsible for aggressive acts that imperil the peace and security of the United States.

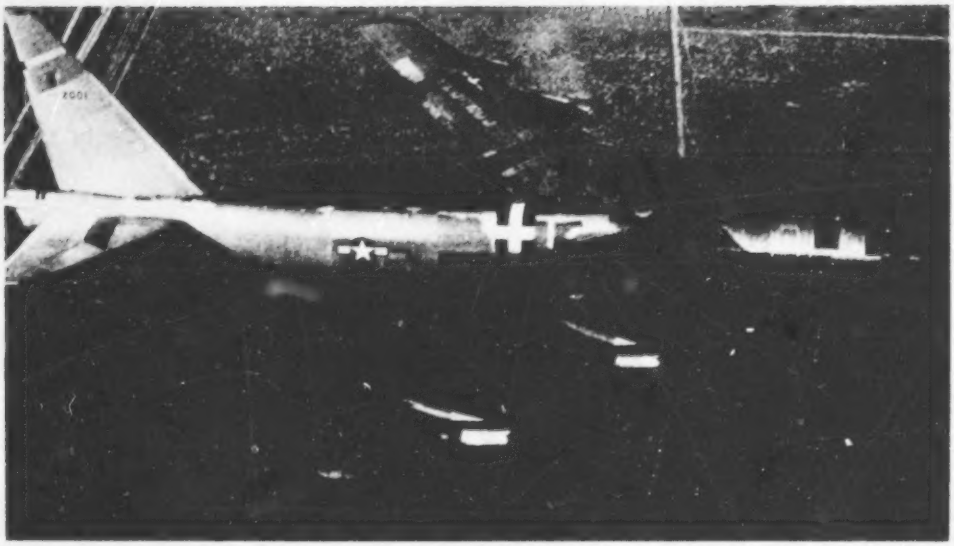
Stated simply, the mission of the Air Force is to provide aerospace forces capable of supporting the Nation's objectives in peace and war. Toward this mission the Air Force has outlined six separate mission areas for the training, support, maintenance, development, and employment of its aerospace forces. These are:

1. STRATEGIC
2. TACTICAL
3. AEROSPACE DEFENSE
4. RESEARCH AND DEVELOPMENT
5. AIRLIFT
6. GENERAL SUPPORT

### *STRATEGIC*

Strategic operations are designed to destroy an enemy's capability to wage war. Our national policy includes the philosophy that superior strategic power deters any potential enemy from launching an attack upon our Nation.

To help prevent general war, or anything likely to lead to one, we depend on a mixed force of manned bombers and intercontinental ballistic missles. If ordered by the President, this force



*The B-52 Stratofortress is the Strategic Air Command's primary heavy bomber. It has eight turbojet engines and a crew of six. The B-52 has a range of up to 9,000 miles, and a speed of 650 MPH; it carries a bombload of more than 20,000 pounds, and is capable of firing air-to-surface guided missiles.*

could be sent thousands of miles to the enemy's homeland, where it could destroy his military bases and industry.

The mainstay of our manned bomber force is the B-52. This venerable aircraft is capable of delivering nuclear or conventional weapons against enemy targets anywhere on the globe. However, its subsonic speed makes it obsolescent when compared with the high performance aircraft being developed today. Under development for the Air Force is the B-1 bomber which will be capable of speeds of more than two times the speed of sound (mach 2). The medium-range FB-111, already in operation, supplements the B-52 force and gives our Strategic Air Command (SAC) a supersonic capability. The bomber forces are located at dispersed satellite bases in the U.S. and a few allied countries. A portion of these are kept on ground alert and can be airborne in a matter of minutes.

The other main part of our strategic airpower rests in the intercontinental ballistic missiles (ICBM). These weapons are based in the United States and are capable of reaching targets anywhere in the world. The basic weapon in the U.S. deterrent arsenal is the *Minuteman* missile. This is a solid-fuel missile that can be launched almost instantaneously from underground silos. The *Minuteman III* has a range of 8,000 miles. Augmenting the Minuteman force are a limited number of *Titan II* missiles. The two-stage *Titan II* uses storable-liquid propellant, but can be fired in less than a minute. It is larger and more powerful than the *Minuteman* and is reserved for use against more distant targets.

This balanced force of manned bombers and long-range intercontinental ballistic missiles, combined with the Navy's Polaris-armed Fleet Ballistic Missile submarine force, is a strong deterrent to any potential enemy. The motto of the Strategic Air Command,

"Peace is our profession," underlines the philosophy that superior strategic power is a weapon for peace.

*TACTICAL*

Tactical air operations are those air activities designed to combat enemy military forces in the field. This includes operations against an enemy's forces or against targets that are directly related to the support of these forces in action. Under this concept, tactical air forces perform five basic tasks: (1) gain air superiority, (2) isolate the battlefield (interdiction), (3) give close air support to ground forces, (4) provide tactical air reconnaissance, and (5) provide tactical airlift. Additional activities come under the heading of "special operations." The range of these activities makes the Tactical Air Command (TAC) the most diversified command in the Air Force.

**Air Superiority.** The U.S. and its allies learned early in World War II that failure to maintain air superiority over the enemy can be a great handicap to ground forces. If an enemy is allowed to dominate the sky over the battlefield, he will not only be able to inflict heavy casualties on ground troops, but will also be able to limit the effectiveness of our own close air support.

Air superiority is best gained by attacking and destroying enemy aircraft and missiles on the ground before they can become airborne. Targets include enemy airfields and immediate supporting facilities, aircraft, radar and other electronic guidance and control facilities, missile stockpiles, and missile launch sites. Counterair operations also include air-to-air combat with enemy air forces that have become airborne.

The workhorse in the Air Force's air superiority role is the F-4 *Phantom* aircraft. It has been joined by the swingwing F-111. Both of these aircraft are capable of playing the dual role of the fighter-bomber. Now under development and soon to be added to the Air Force inventory is the F-15 *Eagle*, a

*The F-111A is one of the most modern weapons in the Air Force inventory; capable of short takeoffs and landing on unimproved runways, this variable-geometry (folding) wing, tactical multipurpose fighter aircraft is able to perform counterair, interdiction, close support, and reconnaissance missions. It has two turbofan engines, and a crew of two pilots. It is capable of speeds ranging from 90 MPH to Mach 2.5.*

true air superiority fighter representing the latest in the art of aircraft design.

**Interdiction.** The object of interdiction is to deny the enemy the use of communications and supply routes. Interdiction operations are designed to disrupt the flow of supplies, men, and equipment by destruction, delay, or harrassment, so that the enemy forces are weakened. Although interdiction operations are rarely 100 percent successful, they usually succeed in great measure. Fighter-bombers such as the F-4 and F-111, as well as attack aircraft such as the A-7 *Corsair II* are well suited for the interdiction task.

**Close Air Support.** The objective of close air support is to assist the ground forces in the immediate battle area by delivering aerial firepower against enemy positions on the ground. Since Army forces have firepower of their own, some supplied by Army aviation, use of Air Force close-support firepower is limited to those situations where it is most effective. It supplements, but is no substitute for, the firepower of ground forces. The A-7 is a subsonic aircraft especially designed for the close-support role, but close-support missions may also be flown by fighter-bombers, or by transport-type gunships which are capable of a large volume of highly accurate fire from rapid-fire machineguns and cannons. Sophisticated sighting and aiming devices make these gunships highly effective against ground targets, especially at night. Soon to be added to the CAS aircraft is the new A-10 designed specifically for close Air Support in heavily defended areas.

**Tactical Air Reconnaissance.** This is the oldest of military air missions, predating the airplane itself. Union forces in the Civil War used tethered balloons to observe enemy positions. The aircraft first employed in World War I were also used for observation until someone decided to equip them with machineguns for use as airborne weapons platforms. Today tactical aerial reconnaissance makes use of the most sophisticated electronic and photographic devices to report activity behind enemy lines—buildups, troop movements, location of air bases, missile sites, radar stations, supply and transport lines, and concentration points. It is closely associated with the air superiority and interdiction missions described above, but it is also of high importance as a means of supplying ground commanders with information. A wide variety of aircraft are used in the tactical air reconnaissance mission. These include the RF-4, a reconnaissance version of the versatile *Phantom*, as well as light propeller driven aircraft such as the OV-10 *Bronco*.

**Tactical Airlift.** Tactical airlift forces serve the forces of the U.S. Army and operate mainly within a theater of operations, rather than for overseas or transcontinental airlifts—a task reserved for the Military Airlift Command (MAC). Tactical airlift includes the rapid air movement to distant areas of combat forces and equipment, as well as aerial resupply, airborne operations, and aeromedical evacuation of combat casualties. Tactical airlift forces also perform special humanitarian tasks, both in peacetime and in war to aid survivors of earthquakes, hurricanes, and other natural disasters. For years TAC forces have been used around the globe in relief operations as well as to combat aggression.

Aircraft used in the tactical airlift role include the four-engined turboprop C-130 *Hercules*, and the twin-engined C-123 *Provider*, as well as some smaller aircraft which are able to take off and

land on short, unprepared landing fields or hastily constructed landing strips.

All of the above activities mark the tactical air forces as truly "general purpose forces," capable of combat operations at all levels of conflict. They operate together with Army and Navy forces wherever they are needed within the framework of unified commands.

*AEROSPACE DEFENSE*

The U.S. Air Force provides a substantial portion of the personnel and the facilities assigned to the joint North American Air Defense Command (NORAD) for aerospace defense of the North American Continent. The Air Force also provides the primary air forces for offensive and defensive operations under control of unified commands overseas.

To help meet these aerospace defense responsibilities, the Air Force's Aerospace Defense Command (ADC) relies on the F-102 *Delta Dagger* and the F-106 *Delta Dart*. These supersonic interceptor aircraft are armed with an assortment of air-to-air missiles and rockets, ranging from the large, nuclear-armed *Genie* to the *Sidewinder*, with its uncanny heat-seeking guidance system.

To make the best use of these weapons systems, a fighter-interceptor dispersal program similar to that for bombers has been developed. Detachments of fighter-interceptor aircraft are located at selected military and civilian installations—remote from major target areas—throughout the United States. This, together with their ability to get off the ground within the 15-minute warning we would have of an ICBM attack, makes possible the survival of the interceptor force to meet an enemy bomber attack that might follow a missile barrage.

A vital part of the aerospace defense force is a system to warn us that an aircraft or missile attack is coming. A series of radar stations, located in England, Greenland, and Alaska constitutes a Ballistic Missile Early Warning System (BMEWS). This system provides an electronic cover extending 3,000 miles scanning the Eurasian land mass, assuring up to 15-minutes' warning of ballistic missile attack across the northern approaches to the North American continent. Many other types of sophisticated sensors—airborne and land based—are deployed around the world to detect missile launchings anywhere on the globe. In addition to providing warning to alert our forces, implementing civil defense plans, protecting United States retaliatory forces, and limiting damage to the United States, aerospace defense introduces more uncertainty into an enemy war planner's job.

*RESEARCH AND DEVELOPMENT*

Air Force research and development is aimed at maintaining superior knowledge and equipment for every area of aerospace operations—from support of ground forces to missions in space. This is the primary mission of the Air Force Systems Command (AFSC) and the Office of Aerospace Research (OAR).

In addition to supervising design and manufacture of new weapon systems, Air Force military and civilian scientists investigate advances in every technological area, in search of military applications.

Air Force efforts presently include defining its future role in space, investigating man's ability to operate effectively in this hostile environment, and conducting research and development in all aspects of military operations outside the atmosphere.

The Air Force also works closely with the National Aeronautics and Space Administration (NASA) and

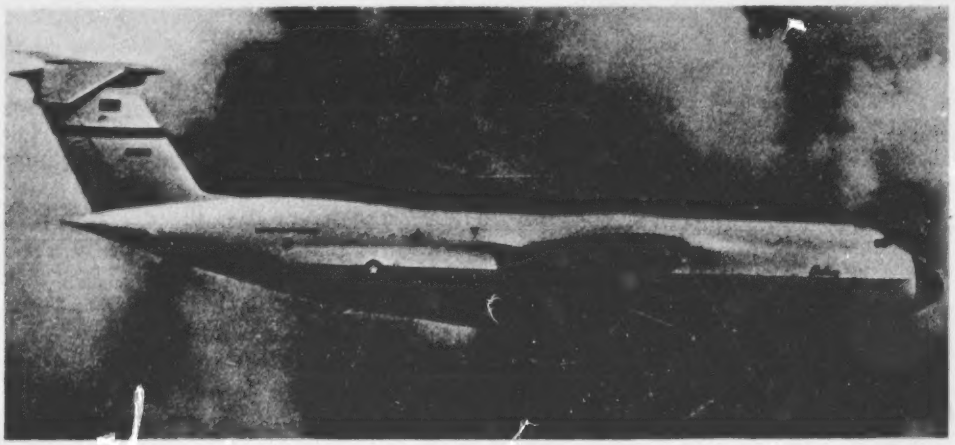
other government agencies in a wide variety of space projects. These include the Gemini and Apollo programs, and the Titan III Standard Space Launch System—the first heavy-duty booster rocket developed specifically as a space booster, rather than a weapon.

In addition to supporting NASA in the Gemini and Apollo programs, the Air Force is actively engaged in many space environment projects, which will add knowledge to the Nation's space efforts. These programs are directed toward the continuing study of man-in-space, how he lives, how he is affected and what his requirements are. The programs include testing of spacecraft equipment, various related boosters, and scientific probes.

*AIRLIFT*

To protect the interests of the U.S. and its allies around the globe, we must be able to rush troops and supplies anywhere in the world as soon as they are needed. Very often the only way to accomplish this is to fly them in huge transport aircraft. Military Airlift Command (MAC) provides transportation of personnel and cargo for all the military services on a worldwide basis. It is a major command of the Air Force, but includes naval personnel as well. In addition to its main airlift function, MAC furnishes weather, rescue, and photographic and charting services for the Air Force.

The Air Force has a wider variety of transport aircraft than any other type. They range from the ancient C-47 *Gooney Bird*, dating from before World War II, to the huge C-5A *Galaxy* which can carry 50 tons of cargo for a distance of more than 6,000 miles at speeds over 500 miles per hour. The mainstay of the MAC is the C-141 *Starlifter*, used primarily to carry personnel and lighter cargo. Other aircraft used by the MAC include flying tankers, air ambulances, and a wide variety of other special purpose transport aircraft. *Air Force One* is a four-engine transcontinental airliner modified for the personal use of the President of the United States.



*The C-5A Galaxy, the world's largest operational aircraft, is the heavy logistic transport for the Military Airlift Command. The C-5, with a normal crew of five, carries 125,000 pounds 8,000 miles, or twice that payload for shorter distances. It has four turbofan engines, and a maximum speed of 570 MPH. It is a most versatile plane, with an upper and lower deck and loading ramps both front and rear. The C-5 can carry 345 troops, or loads such as a tank and two helicopters at the same time.*

*GENERAL SUPPORT*

To maintain the personnel and equipment to perform the five mission areas discussed above requires a huge supporting cast. This supporting cast is largely unseen, but its function is vital to the Air Force mission. These general support operations include:

1. Training of hundreds of thousands of people each year to maintain and operate aerospace weapons systems.
2. Assigning these people to the right jobs and providing them with food, housing, clothing, and medical care.
3. Having spare parts and equipment available when and where they are needed.
4. Providing efficient management of resources—both men and material.

Without this general support, the maintenance and coordination of the Air Force's vast arsenal of airpower would be impossible.

## AIR RESERVE FORCES

The Air Reserve Forces, made up of the Air National Guard (ANG) and the Air Force Reserve (AFRes), are a vital segment of total Air Force capability. Their mission is to provide immediately available, combat-ready units and trained individuals needed to augment the active duty Air Force in time of war or national emergency or in event of increased world tensions.

Flying units of the Air National Guard include fighter-interceptor, tactical fighter, reconnaissance, transport, air-refueling and air commando organizations. Air Force Reserve flying units have transport, troop-carrier and air rescue missions.

Air Reserve forces (ANG and AFRes) non-flying units include all support elements for flying units plus communications, medical, air terminal, weather, postal, GEEIA (Ground Electronics Engineering Installation Agency), aircraft control and warning, and censorship organizations.

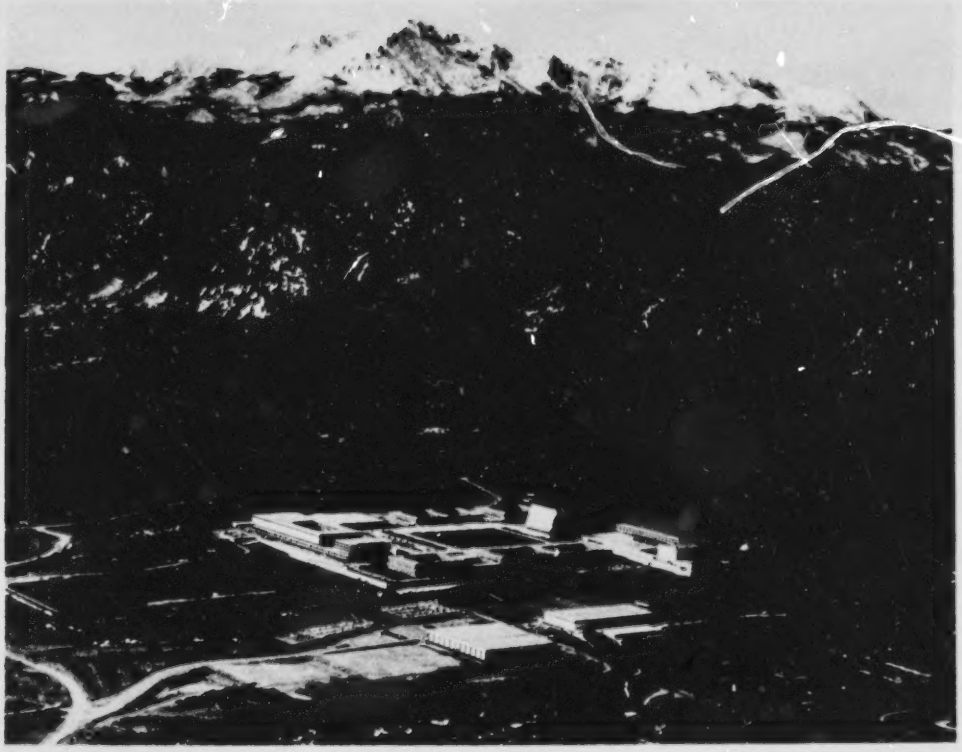
Air Reserve Force units are closely integrated into the command with which they would serve in an emergency. The application of the same set of performance standards to active-duty and reserve forces units assures the Air Force an accurate measure of its total force effectiveness.

## AEROSPACE EDUCATION

Aerospace education has taken on new importance in the era of satellites, astronauts, and the exploration of space. The Air Force is vitally concerned with the promotion of aerospace education.

The Air Force Academy is a product of this aerospace age. It is a service institution with the special mission of producing Air Force career officers. Young men chosen to attend the Academy receive their education free and have personal expenses paid by the Federal Government. The buildings and grounds are as modern as today's jets, spacecraft, and missiles. For those young men who desire an important role in the future, the Air Force Academy is the Gateway to Aerospace.

The Air Force also has many programs to educate America's young people in this rapidly advancing space age. One group who can easily help teachers and people interested in aviation and aerospace is the Civil Air Patrol (CAP). The CAP conducts flight training and special programs for young people from 13 to 18 years of age. Young people interested in the CAP's various programs should contact National Headquarters, Civil Air Patrol, Maxwell AFB, Ala. 36112. Many high schools now offer Air Force Junior ROTC. Academic in nature, Air Force Junior ROTC is primarily designed to enable high school students to become



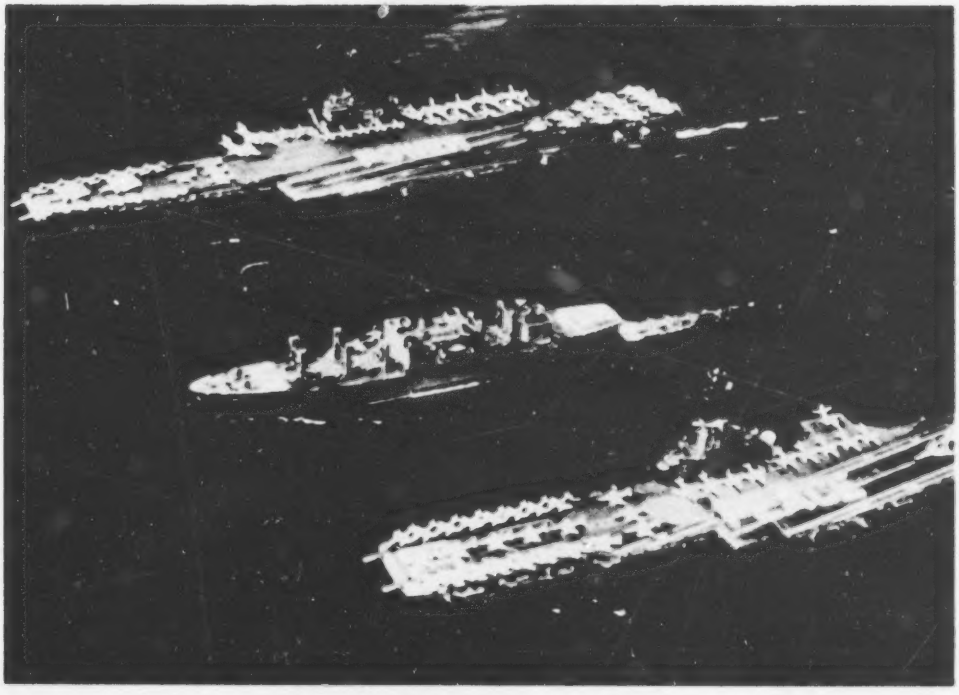
*The Air Force Academy, nestled in the foothills of the Rocky Mountains on the outskirts of Colorado Springs, Colorado, is the nation's newest military academy. This aerial view shows the athletic facilities in the foreground, the spires of the modernistic chapel on the right, and academic and billeting buildings on the other three sides of the parade deck.*

better informed citizens on the challenges and opportunities of aerospace.

## UNITED STATES NAVY

Three-fourths of the earth's surface is covered by oceans. These vast areas of salt water around us play vital roles in all of our lives. For centuries the oceans of the world have been sources of food and avenues of commerce for the civilized world. With the resources of the land no longer able to support the expanding population of the world, the sea has become an important reservoir of food and raw materials. We are depending more and more on the sea for food, fresh water, oil, natural gas, and minerals. In order to make use of these vast resources of the sea we must have free access to them. We can guarantee this free access to the riches of the sea only by the effective use of Sea Power.

Sea Power means more than military power at sea. It is the ability of a nation to use the waters of the earth and their depths in order to attain national objectives. A nation exerts its sea power through the application of pressures, direct and indirect, through commercial and naval activities on, over, under, and from the oceans. Sea power means more than naval might for use in time of war. It also includes the merchant marine, fishing industry, oceanography, and the exploitation of



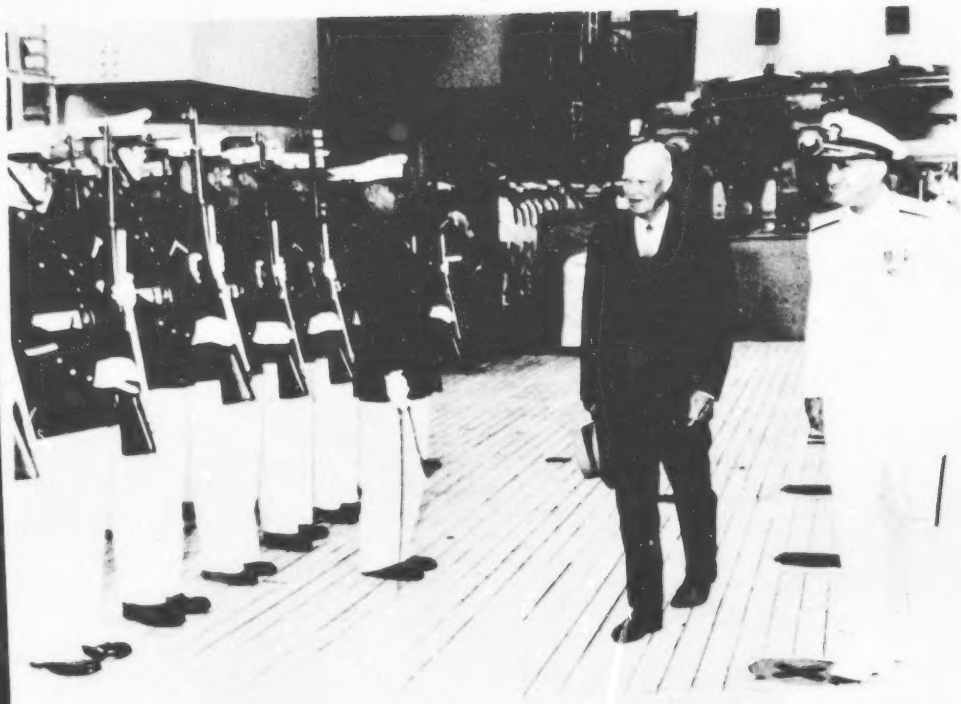
*"POWER FOR PEACE" is a slogan which could be used to describe all the armed forces of the United States. These two U.S. Navy carriers with their attendant logistic support ship demonstrate the slogan vividly.*

the ocean depths for vital minerals and other resources.

Since the Revolutionary War the United States has depended on the seas and the ability to move freely upon them. For decades we have been in a position of unquestioned leadership on the seas. Today our leadership is being challenged by the Soviet Union in an ambitious program to dominate all of the facets of sea power, naval and commercial. In order to meet this challenge and to maintain free access to the seas for all nations, we must use all of our knowledge, skill, determination, and imagination to maintain our position of leadership on the seas. Our scientists, engineers, oceanographers, merchant seamen, and fishermen will meet the challenge to our commercial interests on the seas, but to protect these interests we will continue to need a strong military presence on the oceans of the world. This military presence will be provided by the United States Navy.

The U.S. Navy had its beginning on 13 October 1775, when the Second Continental Congress, under the leadership of John Adams, fitted out two vessels to intercept ships loaded with supplies for the enemy.

For a number of years naval affairs were conducted under the Office of the Secretary for the Department of War. On 30 April 1798 the Congress established the Department of the Navy and the Office of the Secretary of the Navy. As a result of the National Security Act of 1947 and the amendments of 1949, the U.S. Navy is today a military department within the Department of Defense.



*In the summer of 1960 the Commander in Chief, President, Dwight Eisenhower, inspected the Marine Detachment aboard a heavy cruiser in the Pacific, accompanied by the Fleet Commander. Navy ships like this one, the USS St. Paul, protect our nation's access to the seas of the world.*

## *PRIMARY FUNCTIONS*

The Navy and the Marine Corps exist to perform certain primary functions. JCS Publication 2, *Unified Action Armed Forces*, spells out these key functions as follows:

1. To organize, train, and equip Navy and Marine Corps forces for the conduct of prompt and sustained combat operations at sea, including the operations of sea-based aircraft and land-based naval air components. Specifically these forces will be able to seek out and destroy enemy naval forces and to suppress enemy sea commerce, to gain and maintain general naval supremacy, to control vital sea areas and to protect vital sea lines of communications, to establish and maintain local superiority (including air) in an area of naval operations, to seize and defend advanced naval bases, and to conduct such land and air operations as may be essential to the prosecution of a naval campaign.

2. To maintain the Marine Corps. This function includes the following specific responsibilities:

(a) To provide Fleet Marine Forces of combined arms, together with supporting air components, for service with the Fleet in the seizure or defense of advanced naval bases and for the conduct of land operations that are essential to a naval campaign. (The creation of a second land Army is not contemplated.)

(b) To provide detachments and organizations for service on armed

*General Leonard F. Chapman, Jr., 24th Commandant of the United States Marine Corps, served in that capacity from January 1968 until December 1972. General Chapman is representative of Marine Commandants who have been directly responsible to the Secretary of the Navy for the administration, organization, and performance of the Marine Corps. The General has compiled a distinguished record in combat in the Pacific, and was the motivating force who put the Marine Corps in a foremost position in automated military management.*

vessels of the Navy, and security detachments for the protection of naval property at naval stations and bases.

(c) To develop, in coordination with the other Services, the doctrine, tactics, techniques, and equipment employed by landing forces in amphibious operations. The Marine Corps has the primary responsibility in the development of the landing force doctrines, tactics, techniques, and equipment which are of common interest to the Army and the Marine Corps.

(d) To train and equip Marine forces for airborne operations, in coordination with the other services, and in accordance with doctrines established by the Joint Chiefs of Staff.

(e) To develop, in coordination with the other Services, the doctrines, procedures, and equipment of interest to the Marine Corps for airborne operations.

3. To organize and equip, in coordination with the other Services, and provide naval forces, including naval close air-support forces, for the conduct of joint amphibious operations, and be responsible for the amphibious training of all forces assigned to joint amphibious operations in accordance with doctrines established by the Joint Chiefs of Staff.

4. To develop, in coordination with the other Services, the doctrines, procedures, and equipment of naval forces for amphibious operations, and the doctrines and procedures for joint amphibious operations.

5. To furnish adequate, timely, and reliable intelligence for the Navy and Marine Corps.

6. To organize, train, and equip naval forces for naval reconnaissance, for antisubmarine warfare, for protection of shipping, for mine laying, and for controlled mine field operations.

7. To provide air support essential for naval operations.

8. To provide sea-based air defense and sea-based means for coordinating with the other services on matters of joint concern.

9. To provide naval, including naval air, forces as required for the defense of the United States against air attack, in accordance with doctrines established by the Joint Chiefs of Staff.

10. To furnish aerial photography, as necessary, for Navy and Marine Corps operations.

*This Marine AV8A Harrier fighter aircraft is stationed in Cherry Point, North Carolina. It is shown loaded with practice bombs and 30mm cannon gun pods flying over eastern North Carolina. Marine Corps aviation forces are half of the combined arms teams.*

## *NAVAL OPERATING FORCES*

The broad responsibility for fulfilling the naval role in support of the national policies and interests rests on the operating forces of the Navy. These forces consist of the several fleets, seagoing forces, sea frontier forces, naval district forces, Fleet Marine Forces and other assigned Marine Corps forces, the Military Sea Transportation Service, and other assigned shore activities.

The operating forces afloat are comprised of the several active and reserve fleets, sea frontier forces, the Military Sea Transportation Service, ships and craft assigned to naval districts, the Coast Guard (when operating as a service in the Navy), special duty ships and craft and specialized units, and other fleets and forces as may be required and assigned by the Secretary of the Navy.

**Major Commands.** There are three major commands afloat within the Navy: the Pacific Fleet; the Atlantic Fleet; and Naval Forces, Europe. Their commanders are directly under the Chief of Naval Operations. The Military Sea Transport Service also has the status of a major command afloat, but is not a part of general purpose combat forces.

**Operational Commands.** Under the first three of the above major commands are numbered fleets, made up of mixed Navy forces. These include the First and Seventh Fleets under the Pacific Fleet Command the Second Fleet under the Atlantic Command, and the Sixth Fleet under Naval Forces, Europe. There are also shorebased commands called sea frontiers as follows: Eastern, Caribbean, Western, Hawaiian, and Alaskan. These are all considered *operational commands.*

**Type Commands.** Included in the fleets and other operational commands are various *types* of ships, craft, or forces, each requiring its own administrative command structure. A Fleet Marine Force is a type command. Another example is a fleet air command, with such

*This is an aerial view of the United States Naval Academy in Annapolis, Maryland. After four years service at the Naval Academy, midshipmen graduate and receive college degrees, plus commissions as Marine second lieutenants or Navy ensigns, and are then assigned to Marine units, ships of the fleet, or advanced schools.*

subordinate units as the fleet air wing (FAIRWING), heavy attack wing (HATWING), and utility wing (UTWING).

## *SHORE ACTIVITIES*

A multitude of shore activities exist for the primary purpose of supplying, maintaining, and supporting the Operating Forces through the delivery or furnishing of material, services, and personnel. A representative list of such activities includes naval distrist headquarters, air facilities and stations, Reserve training units, ammunition depots, communication stations, fleet intelligence centers, fuel depots, naval hospitals, laboratories, medical centers, recruiting stations, shipyards, supply centers, and schools. These activities form a complex of installations engaged in a wide variety of functions including military operations such as flight training, service functions such as moving and storage of supplies, and industrial functions such as ship construction and repair.

Many shore activities are distributed at strategic points along our coastal regions and overseas where they can most directly serve the needs of the Operating Forces. Activities for which nearness to the forces afloat is not essential or practical, however, are distributed at vantage points within the United States. Among the latter are finance offices, recruiting stations, research and development activities, training centers, and others.

## *TYPES OF NAVAL OPERATIONS*

Naval warfare is subdivided into several types of naval operations. Any or all of the following types of naval operations may be required:

1. Striking force operations.
2. Naval Air operations.
3. Submarine operations.
4. Antisubmarine operations.
5. Amphibious operations.
6. Mining operations; mine countermeasure operations.
7. Fleet logistic support operations.
8. Control and protection of shipping operations.
9. Counterinsurgency.

*Amphibious assault ships, such as the IWO JIMA (LPH-2), pictured here, serve as floating bases and heliports for Marine Battalion Landing Teams. These infantry battalions, reinforced with supporting arms and helicopters to lift the battalion ashore, float the oceans of the world in readiness for any mission assigned.*

The above types of naval operations are, for the most part, self-explanatory. However, a brief clarification of striking force and counterinsurgency operations is needed.

The main combat power of a fleet is vested in its attack carrier striking force. Aircraft embarked on carriers are the major source of offensive power, having combat range up to 1,000 miles and the ability to carry either conventional or nuclear weapons.

An attack carrier striking force usually consists of two or three carriers, two cruisers, and perhaps as many as 16 destroyers. The largest and most modern of the Navy's carriers is the 86,000-ton nuclear-powered *Enterprise*.

In counterinsurgency the primary naval mission is a mix of two types of operations: amphibious and restricted water operations. The various counterinsurgency tasks of naval amphibious forces include transport of troops, stores, and civilians in any coastal area where an insurgency might be successfully mounted; larger assault landings or raids along coasts, among islands, and at upriver points; and such amphibious techniques of joint operations as communications, intelligence, logistics, and gunfire support.

Restricted water operations could include any or all of the following: harbor, coastal, or inter-island patrol; inshore blockading; harbor defense duties; river patrolling and support of land operations; pursuit of small enemy craft and numerous special missions.

There are also special naval forces such as reconnaissance and pathfinder personnel, assault-boat and shore-party personnel, small coastal submarines, and the Navy's SEAL (sea-air-land) force of underwater swimmers who are trained in advanced demolition and other counterguerilla techniques.

## *NAVY-MARINE CORPS TEAM*

Very often in our history we have been required to project our sea power ashore to protect the interests of our country or its allies. The Navy-Marine Corps team has always fulfilled this requirement with distinction. The Navy-Marine Corps team is unique in history because of its mobility and its ability to fight any kind of war—on land, on sea, and in the air. The new tactic of vertical assault, introduced into amphibious warfare by the Marine Corps and supported by the Navy, is already fully developed and tested. It involves moving Marines ashore by helicopter and putting them down, combat-ready, behind front line defenses. This type of opera-

*The Navy-Marine Corps team is vividly depicted here as Marine infantrymen hit the beach after debarking from Navy landing craft. The teamwork demonstrated by these Marines and sailors engaged in an amphibious assault is an essential element in mission success.*

tion has the full impact of surprise, deception, and mobility to which operations from the sea lend themselves so readily. It puts the Navy-Marine Corps team in a unique position to establish bases ashore for further movement inland as circumstances dictate.

## UNITED STATES COAST GUARD

Although the U.S. Coast Guard is a military service and a branch of the Armed Forces, it is normally assigned to the Department of Transportation rather than to the Department of Defense. (Before 1966 it was assigned to the Department of the Treasury.) In time of war or when the President directs, however, the Coast Guard operates as a part of the Navy. The Coast Guard began operation in 1790. Its units have served in every major armed conflict in which the U.S. has been involved since that time.

The Coast Guard today is a united service made up of what was formerly the Revenue Cutter Service, the Lifesaving Service, the Lighthouse Service, and the Bureau of Marine Inspection and Navigation.

### *FUNCTIONS*

The Coast Guard is primarily charged with providing search and rescue services, developing and administering a merchant marine safety program, maintaining readiness for military operations in time of war or national emergency, providing aids to navigation for the Armed Forces and marine commerce,

*The Hamilton, pictured here, is a 378 feet long modern high endurance Coast Guard cutter, designed for long-range search and rescue, ocean station patrol, oceanographic research and gathering of meteorological data, and military readiness. The ship has a combined diesel and gas turbine propulsion plant, and a maximum speed of 29 knots. Ships like this are stationed on all coasts of the continental U.S. and in Hawaii.*

maintaining port security, and enforcing laws on the high seas or waters under the jurisdiction of the United States.

The Coast Gurad also conducts an oceanography program, maintains ocean stations, provides icebreaking services, and trains a force of officer and enlisted Reserves.

## *ORGANIZATION*

The Commandant of the Coast Guard is assisted in his direction of the service by an Assistant Commandant, a Chief of Staff, and a headquarters organization including Offices of Comptroller, Engineering, Merchant Marine Safety, Operations, Personnel, and Reserve.

## *DEFENSE SUPPORT ACTIVITIES*

While Coast Guard services in search and rescue, merchant marine safety, port security, law enforcement, ice breaking, marine pilotage, and Reserve training can all have a direct bearing on the defense of the nation, it seems likely that the Coast Guard's greatest continuing defense-related contributions are those discussed below.

**Military Readiness.** As required by law, the Coast Guard maintains a state of readiness to function as a specialized service of the Navy in time of war. To increase its operational readiness, the Coast Guard cooperates closely with the Navy in many areas, especially in training and logistics. The U.S. Coast Guard Academy, New London, Connecticut, provides both military and academic preparation for future officers of the Coast Guard.

**Aids to Navigation.** The Coast Guard establishes and maintains aids to navigation including lighthouses, offshore light structures, lightships, buoys, daybeacons, fog signals, short-range radiobeacons, and long-range navigation aids

*The United States Coast Guard Academy, located at New London, Connecticut is the Service Academy for Coast Guard officers.*

(LORAN). The aids to navigation system serves both commercial and Armed Forces sea and air traffic.

**Ocean Stations.** Six ocean stations are maintained by the Coast Guard. Four of these vessels are in the North Atlantic Ocean and two are in the Pacific. While on station, these ships provide meteorological information to the National Weather Service and to ships and aircraft. They also perform search and rescue missions, collect oceanographic data, and furnish aids to navigation information for air and marine traffic.

## WOMEN IN THE ARMED FORCES

An Air Force expert decoding a priority message in the Pentagon, a Navy specialist checking a flight plan in Alaska, a Marine taking dictation from a British officer in a NATO headquarters in Europe, an Army technician operating a data processing machine in the Far East, a Coast Guard officer purchasing supplies in Washington—what do they all have in common besides the pride and satisfaction that accompany the performance of essential tasks in the Nation's defense? All are women. Unusual? Far from it, for today thousands of dedicated, skilled women are discharging hundreds of varied, important responsibilities in the U.S. Armed Forces.

Around the world and around the clock, American women in uniform are demonstrating that the greatest single resource of the Armed Forces—com-

*Boston Light Station, manned by three U.S. Coast Guardsmen, is 250 years old. It was established on Little Brewster Island in Boston Harbor in 1716, and today is 89 feet high and has a two million candlepower light. Benjamin Franklin wrote a ballad about the lighthouse; George Washington defended it, and in the War of 1812 the captain of the USS Chesapeake gasped, "Don't give up the ship" before dying in battle in waters near these rocks.*

*The Frying Pan Offshore Light Structure has operated off the shore of North Carolina since 1964. This is one of seven offshore light structures built to replace lightships. A crew of six Coast Guardsmen man the navigational aid station, which has radio beacon, communications, oceanographic, and lantern equipment.*

petent manpower—has truly become man-and-womanpower.

Putting women into uniform is simply good sense based on a realistic, objective appraisal of the facts. Central among these facts is the personnel pinch created by the pressing needs of the domestic economy and of the military establishment. Linked to this is the fact that more than half of the American population is female. Industry has long depended upon the female majority as a source of qualified help, and to deny the Armed Forces similar access to this major segment of the manpower pool could only weaken the Nation's defense organization.

But women not only fill a quantitative requirement of the Armed Forces, they also satisfy a qualitative need. In other words, women in uniform do an outstanding job. Military commanders have found that women are dependable, adaptable, deft, and energetic. They ask no special concessions on the job merely because they are women. Nor do they need them.

Actually, women often outperform men in certain tasks. To use the words of one Army general: "There are many, many jobs. . .that women do better than men. In jobs requiring great concentration and patience, they are often more dependable and meticulous."

Traditionally, women have rendered nursing services in the military. This is still a major role of women in uniform, but today the list of jobs they do in the Armed Forces is both long and varied. Women have proven that they measure up fully to the demands of a defense establishment that has become exceedingly complex and exacting.

## *WOMEN'S MILITARY TRADITION*

There is long historical precedent for women in military service, stretching back to the American Revolution when Molly Pitcher and Deborah Sampson went into the field with the Continental Army.

Florence Nightingale gained immortality by organizing the first women's nursing service for the British Army during the Crimean War. In our Civil War, Dorothea Linde Dix and Clara Barton established a women's nursing service that performed effectively and selflessly for the Union armies.

During the Spanish-American War, the War and Navy Departments recognized the need for nurses and hired them under civilian contract. They served with distinction in Cuba, Puerto Rico, the Philippines, and aboard troop ships, as well as within the United States. As a result of their outstanding record, Congress created the Army Nurse Corps in 1901 and the Navy Nurse Corps in 1908.

The demands of World War I made it necessary for the military to use women for jobs other than nursing. Dietitians and physical and occupational therapists served as civilians in military hospitals at home and abroad.

It was during that war that the British organized women into military components to handle a number of noncombat tasks. General Pershing was so impressed by their performance that he asked for units of American women to be enlisted and organized in our own Army. Laws then covering the Army restricted enlistment to "men", so General Pershing did not get his female units although he did receive women telephone operators, under contract. However, the Navy was authorized the service of "persons"—sex unspecified. Taking advantage of the permissive "persons" clause, the Navy enrolled several thousand women volunteers as Yeomen (F), popularly called "Yeomanettes," and the Marine Corps enrolled a few hundred Reservists known as "Marinettes."

By World War II, women had become an important part of the Nation's labor force. Then, as never before, the Nation needed all its manpower to help win the greatest war in our history.

In Great Britain, where manpower shortages were a crushing problem, women were *drafted*, for both military forces and essential industry. Such drastic action was not required in the United States, but it was clear that steps would have to be taken on this side of the Atlantic to satisfy personnel demands. Consequently, in May, 1942, Congress authorized formation of the Women's Army Auxiliary Corps (WAAC), to consist of volunteers. The WAACs were followed in July, 1942, by the WAVES (Navy); in November, 1942, by the SPARs (Coast Guard); and in February, 1943, by the Women Marines. The WAACs became a *component* instead of an auxiliary of the Army in 1943, and was renamed the Women's Army Corps (WAC). As the Air Force was then a part of the Army, thousands of WACs served the Army Air Force as predecessors of the present Women in the Air Force (WAF), which was established in June, 1948. Meanwhile, the Army Nurse Corps and the Navy Nurse Corps had expanded to meet the urgent demands placed on them.

During World War II, more than a quarter-million American women served in uniformed military status in a range of jobs and under a variety of conditions defying brief description. All, with the exception of Army and Navy nurses, were members of the Reserves. In the rapid postwar demobilization, only a few thousand WAC's, WAVES, and Women Marines were retained on active duty.

*WOMEN BECOME REGULARS*

Legislation passed in 1947 established a permanent Nurse corps in the Army and in the Navy, as well as a Women's Medical Specialist Corps in the Army. The Defense Department felt strongly that the other women's components should also be a part of the Regular forces. Top military figures, including General Eisenhower, testified to this effect before Congress. Their reasoning went like this: The United States is committed to a policy of military preparedness. In both world wars we had time to prepare, at least partially, while other nations fought the enemy. If another world conflagration breaks out, we are likely to be forced to fight immediately. Thus, in any World War III we won't have a chance to start from scratch as we did before. We must have ready a sufficient body of trained, experienced women in uniform so that we can expand thir numbers rapidly.

A convinced Congress passed the Women's Armed Services Integration Act in 1948 to provide both Regular and Reserve status for women.

*WOMEN'S ROLE*

The role of the women in uniform has altered radically from the old concept of limited responsibilities. This transformation was described by President Johnson in 1964 when he pointed out that a military career for women is no longer confined to nursing and office work. The President emphasized that "today women are making important professional and technical contributions to the military as scientists, as engineers, as mathematicians, as administrators, as managers, as teachers, as lawyers, as linguists. I think we need more women to play an even more important role."

Today's servicewoman is capably filling virtually every military assignment not involving combat or the use of strength beyond the capacity of a woman. She is a full and active member of the Armed Forces team, not a benchwarmer. On equal footing with the men in uniform, she has the same opportunities for promotion within legal limitations, the same pay scale, the same privileges and benefits.

Like male recruits, enlisted women entering active duty receive basic training enabling them to make a smooth transition from civilian to military life. Except for the manual of arms, they are grounded in military fundamentals during this period. After basic training, women with specific job skills are assigned to duty. Others go on to specialist training in accordance with their aptitudes. At specialist schools they learn skills that, in most cases, also equip them for civilian employment after they leave the Armed Forces. Women with the educational requirements and other qualifications may apply for officer training.

**Women's Army Corps**—At peak strength in World War II, 100,000 WACs performed more than 200 different tasks all over the world. Many of these duties were in the field of communications in both the European and Pacific Theaters.

Sixteen WACs received the Purple Heart for wounds suffered during air raids on England. More than 600 were decorated for meritorious service. Ten were awarded the Soldier's Medal, granted for personal heroism at the risk of life.

WAC officers are assigned in most of the Army's occupational areas and are used in staff and operational assignments at all command and staff levels. Today's WAC, when she enlists, receives eight weeks of basic training at the U.S. Women's Army Corps Center, Fort McClellan, Alabama. After basic, she may be sent to any one of several specialist schools. Among them

are Brooke Army Medical Center at Fort Sam Houston, Texas, for technical training in the medical field; the communications schools at Fort Gordon, Georgia, and at Fort Monmouth, New Jersey; the Engineer School at Fort Belvoir, Virginia, for instruction in drafting; and the Adjutant General's School at Fort Benjamin Harrison, Indiana, for clerical, secretarial, or administrative training.

WACs serve today in 188 different specialties. About 15 percent of the Corps is on duty in Europe and the Far East.

**Women Marines**—By June, 1944, little more than one year after the Women Marines were organized in World War II, they had met their quota of 18,000 enlisted women and 800 officers. At the outset, it had been planned that women would fill 30 different kinds of jobs in the Marine Corps. However, they performed so well, displaying so much adaptability and skill, that they were soon assigned to more than 200 types of duty. A substantial number of these tasks was in the field of aviation.

Today's Women Marine recruits receive an initial eight-week period of training at Parris Island, South Carolina. For many recruits, this is followed by advanced training in the specialist schools of the Marine Corps or in those operated by the other Armed Forces. Women Marine Officer training is conducted at the Marine Corps Development and Education Command, Quantico, Virgina.

Women Marines are an integral part of the Marine Corps team. They are administered at every level of command under the same policies and procedures as men Marines except where physical requirements necessitate differences. Enlisted women serve in all ranks available to men—private to master gunnery sergeant or segeant major. Women who are commissioned officers may be pro-

*Private Manrriquez is in job training at Brooke Army Medical Center, Fort Sam Houston, in San Antonio, Texas, and will continue her studies at the Clinical Specialist school. She will, when her military service is finished, qualify as a licensed practical nurse, and will have years of experience in the nursing field.*

*The enlisted Woman Marine uniform, Blue Dress, is appropriate for many occasions, and has behind it the same tradition as that of the male Marine's Dress Blues.*

moted from second lieutenant through colonel and in all warrant officer grades.

Women Marines serve on an interchangable basis with men Marines in all noncombatant occupational fields. They may be assigned to any billet commensurate with their physical capabilities, except that women cannot be assigned to duty in aircraft while such aircraft

*The Woman Marine private shown here with a headset on is a traffic controller at a Marine Corps Air Station. She is responsible for the safety of aircraft and pilots and takes great pride in the excellent safety record which her command has earned.*

are engaged in combat missions. They are assigned in numbers to duty at every major Marine Corps air and ground command in the United States including

*Intelligence is but one of many career fields in which Women Marines serve. The officer shown above is working in the photo interpretation section, G-2, at Headquarters, Fleet Marine Force, Pacific, located at Camp H. M. Smith, Hawaii.*

Hawaii and on an individual basis to smaller activities. Women Marines serve overseas in such foreign countries as Italy, Germany, England, Belgium, Japan, Okinawa, and Hong Kong.

Today's Woman Marine may be assigned to any of some 80 occupational specialties in over 20 different fields. They run the gamut from data processing to communications and from personnel administration to various activities related to aviation operations.

Every effort is made in selecting the career field in which women will serve to ensure that she is trained to do the job for which she has a natural aptitude, a personal preference and for which the Marine Corps has need of her abilities.

*This Woman Marine corporal, member of a Drum and Bugle Team, is one of a number of women musicians in the Marine Corps. Women Marines are demonstrating their talents in musical units ranging from the Marine Band at Marine Barracks, Washington, D.C. to small local Drum and Bugle Corps units.*

**Women in the Navy**—During World War II, the majority of Women Naval officers served as administrators, language specialists, radio and radar technicians, lawyers, communicators, and educational services officers. Enlisted women replaced men in 38 different specialties. Among them were parachute rigger, hospital corpsman, Link trainer instructor, air controller, yeoman, radioman, gunnery instructor, aviation ground crew work, and a variety of other duties. At their wartime high, Women in the Navy numbered nearly 90,000.

Women can plan for a full and comprehensive career in the Navy. There are no restrictions on their assignments other than that they may not serve aboard combatant ships or aircraft.

Initial training for enlisted Women in the Navy is conducted at the Recruit Training Command (Women), Bainbridge, Maryland. Officers are provided their indoctrination at the U.S. Naval Women Officers School, Newport, Rhode Island.

**Women in the Air Force**—On 18 June 1948, the Women's Armed Forces Integration Act gave permanent status to Women in the Air Force—many of whom had served with distinction as "Air WACs" during World War II.

Women in the Air Force are not organized as a separate corps, but form an integral part of the Air Force. Commissioned and enlisted WAFs serve in a wide spectrum of skills, side by side with their male contemporaries, in many parts of the world. About 25 percent of all WAF officers serve outside the continental United States at all times. En-

listed WAFs serve at some 30 bases in the continental United States, Hawaii, Great Britain, France, Germany, and Italy.

All enlisted WAFs must complete basic military training at Lackland Air Force Base, Texas. After basic training they are sent directly to duty assignments or attend technical training schools. Among the specialties in which they are trained are communications, supply, medical, dental, personnel, and administration.

Approximately 125 women are commissioned as second lieutenants in the Air Force each year. They must be college graduates and must complete a 12-week precommissioning training course at the Co-educational Officer Training Course at Lackland Air Force Base. WAF officers are assigned to almost every career field open to nonflying Air Force officers.

*Examining a fungus specimen in a bacteriology laboratory is this WAF airman first class from the Air Force Medical Center, Lackland Air Force Base, San Antonio, Texas. Medical technicians in many different fields undergo advanced training at this facility.*

**Coast Guard Women's Reserve**—SPARs are the women members of the Coast Guard Reserve. In peacetime, SPARs, like all Coast Guardsmen, come under the overall jurisdiction of the Department of Transportation; in a wartime situation, the Coast Guard functions under the jurisdiction of the Defense Department just as any other of the Armed Forces.

The name "SPAR" derives from the Coast Guard's Latin motto and its English translation: Semper Paratus, Always Ready. During World War II, more than 10,000 enlisted SPARs and 1,000 SPAR officers served in the continental United States, Alaska and Hawaii. They performed every type of duty where they could replace male Coast Guardsmen in all areas and units not afloat or in a battle zone.

Although a small number of SPARs are currently on active duty, most are now affiliated with Coast Guard Reserve units that drill weekly or monthly. SPARs in Reserve units also perform one two-week tour of active duty training annually. Their initial two-week tour on entering the Service is with the WAVES at the Navy's Recruit Training Command (Women), Bainbridge, Maryland; succeeding tours are performed at Coast Guard installations.

Anticipating that any future mobilization would require immediate expansion of the SPARs, the Coast Guard embarked in 1965 on its first program to recruit and train enlisted SPARs since World War II. Enlistment is for a three-year period. The first year is performed on active duty and includes 10 weeks' basic training with the Women in the Navy, followed by 12 weeks of specialized instruction at a Coast Guard Training School, and then on-the-job training for the balance of the year before being rated in their specialty. After that year of active duty, the SPARs return to their homes and participate in the pro-

grams of local Coast Reserve units for the balance of their enlistments.

**Army Nurse Corps**—The oldest military nurse corps in the world, the Army Nurse Corps has a proud record compiled in peace and in war. In World War I, half of the Corps served overseas, including duty with the Siberian expedition. In World War II, a peak strength of 57,000 Army nurses served in every corner of the globe. Sixteen of them were killed by enemy action, 66 were interned as prisoners, and over 1,600 were decorated for bravery or for meritorious service. The story of courage and of selflessness has been repeated by Army nurses in Korea and in Vietnam.

All Army nurses are officers and since the passage of enabling legislation in 1955, the Corps is open to men as well as women. The criteria for commission include graduation from an approved school of nursing and current registration to practice nursing in a State, the District of Columbia, or Puerto Rico. Upon entering the Corps, all officers attend an Orientation Course at Brooke Army Medical Center, Fort Sam Houston, Texas. In the course of their careers, they have ample opportunity for advanced training in various specialties related to the nursing profession.

*First Lt. Foreman is an occupational therapist in the Army Medical Service Corps, working at Walter Reed General Hospital, Washington, D.C. Leathercraft is one of the many activity areas practiced in the Neuropsychiatric Ward at Walter Reed.*

In addition to the normal patient-care duties, Army nurses may be assigned responsibilities for supervision, administration, instruction, research, or development of new nursing techniques.

**Navy Nurse Corps**—After nearly 60 years of service, the Navy Nurse Corps has an enviable history of accomplishment. In World War I, Navy nurses were awarded four Navy Crosses (three of them posthumously) and two Army citations for "special, meritorious and conspicuous service." Eleven Navy nurses, captured in the Philippines in World War II, spent three incredibly difficult years in prison camps where they never ceased caring for the sick and wounded. In that war, later in Korea and Vietnam, Navy nurses have earned scores of decorations and citations for bravery and for oustanding devotion to duty.

Like the Army Nurse Corps, the Navy Nurse Corps is an all-officer organization open to qualified female and male graduate nurses. During their careers, Navy nurses are eligible for advanced professional training in both Armed Forces and civilian medical institutions.,

Navy nurses serve in naval hospitals and dispensaries at home and aboard, and on transports, hospital ships, and medical aircraft. Whenever and wherever they are needed, they stand ready to minister to the sick, the wounded, and the injured.

**Air Force Nurse Corps**—As in the other Services, Air Force nurses comprise an all-officer Corps open to both

female and male graduate registered nurses. They serve in Air Force hospitals and dispensaries and as flight nurses aboard aeromedical evacuation planes.

Flight nurses receive specialized training at Brooks Air Force Base, San Antonio, Texas. Following graduation, they may serve aboard planes evacuating wounded from a combat area, planes transporting patients from overseas hospitals to the United States, or planes tranporting patients within the United States.

In the course of their careers, Air Force nurses have many opportunities to study the latest developments and techniques related to nursing.

**Medical Specialist Program**—The Army, the Navy, and the Air Force each operate a Medical Specialist Program in which qualified men and women are commissioned to serve as dietitians, physical therapists, or occupational therapists. In the Army, such officers are commissioned in the Army Medical Specialist Corps, in the Air Force they serve in the Biomedical Sciences Corps, and in the Navy they are commissioned in the Medical Specialist Section of the Medical Service Corps.

Every time a wounded or sick serviceman eats a meal it is most probable that a skilled dietitian commissioned under the Medical Specialist Program played a major role in providing it for him. Dietitians assigned to military hospitals in the United States and overseas have full control over planning, preparation, and service of food for patients, even aboard evacuation aircraft. In addition, the dietitians conduct research in foods; suggest, design, and test new equipment and methods; and train others in the science of dietetics.

The physical therapist works to alleviate symptoms of muscular and skeletal injuries and diseases. Special exercises are the therapist's most important tool in helping a patient regain muscular function and strength. Heat, cold, light, water, electricity, and massage also are used—primarily to relieve pain. An important part of the physical therapist's function is the training of enlisted medical personnel to assist in the program.

Occupational therapy is a form of treatment in which the patient himself participates. Its objective is to guide and assist the patient in recovering his mental or physical health through training in arts, crafts, new work assignments, and other activities of daily living. Such a program places progressive demands upon the patient in order to promote his independence. At the same time those activities provide the patient interesting use of his time and permit the occupational therapist to evaluate his progress.

The goal of the physical therapist and the occupaptional therapist is to help the patient meet the demands of daily living.

The dietition, the physical therapist, and the occupational therapist are able, important members of a medical corps dedicated to maintaining the highest standards of health for the military.

## *THE NEED CONTINUES*

So much have women become an integral part of the United States Armed Forces, so valued are their skills and their talents, so devoted is their service, that they have become indispensable to our military establishment.

They have demonstrated beyond any question their right to wear our Nation's uniform with pride. They have proven it in peace and war, at home and abroad, in countless important assignments, and in extremely difficult situations faced with perseverance and courage. They will continue to prove it as long as dedication, dependability, and

love of country are traits of American womanhood.

Our Nation's servicewomen proudly stand resolute with its servicemen, doing their duty and discharging their responsibilities as respected and welcome members of the United States Armed Forces.

CHAPTER 11

# CODE OF CONDUCT

Our founding fathers declared in the Declaration of Independence, "And for the support of this declaration, with a firm reliance on the protection of Divine Providence, we mutually pledge to each other our lives, our fortunes, and our sacred honor." To emphasize individual responsibility for the perpetuation of the American way of life that has grown out of the basic tenets of the Declaration of Independence, President Eisenhower, on 17 August 1955, signed Executive Order 10631, known as The Code of Conduct for members of the Armed Forces of The United States of America.

The Code of Conduct is a short but profound document. It contains just 247 words, all of them so simple that anyone can grasp their meaning. It applies uniformly to all of the military services at all times, in peace or in war. The code is not very old in years, yet it is timeless in a sense. American men-at-arms have honored its provisions in all the wars this country has fought, and it will serve to strengthen future generations of American fighting men.

In its written form the Code grew out of the Korean War in which the conduct of a few American fighting men cast a shadow over the majority of their comrades in arms who acquitted themselves honorably and with distinction. Unfortunately, the misdeeds of the few received far more publicity than the honorable behavior of the many.

The code was not intended to provide detailed and exhaustive guidance on every aspect of military life. For that purpose there are such things as the Uniform Code of Military Justice, military regulations, rules of military courtesy, and the well established customs and traditions of each of the Services.

Written in the form of a creed, Articles I and VI of the Code of Conduct are general statements affirming dedication to American security and devotion to American principles. Resistance is the keynote of Article II, which prescribes the behavior required on the battlefield. Articles III, IV, and V tell what is expected of the American fighting man who has the misfortune to be captured by the enemy.

The thought of captivity is repugnant. Fortunately, few Americans ever find themselves prisoners of war. All military men who go into combat must do so fully prepared for capture, however slim the possibility. For the relatively few Americans who are captured, the Code of Conduct is of vital importance. It is a weapon the fighting man takes into captivity with him, the one weapon the enemy cannot strip from him. The Code is the PW's lifeline to his dignity, his sanity, and his country.

The Communists added a new dimension to warfare in Korea when they extended the war to the prisoner of war camp. Their systematic and comprehensive program to indoctrinate and exploit their captives came as a complete surprise to some Americans. Articles III, IV, and V are included to give the unfortunate captive the means to resist this indoctrination, keep faith with his fellow fighting men, and maintain his honor as an American.

*The American Prisoner of War is guided and sustained by the Code of Conduct.*

*The Marine Corps officer pictured here returning to Marine Corps Base, Camp Lejuene, North Carolina, is a former prisoner of war who was held captive by the North Vietnamese. He is typical of those POW's who returned from North Vietnam in the spring of 1973; he and his fellow prisoners were the first Americans to actually endure the rigors of being a POW in wartime and to live by the creed of the Code of Conduct.*

**"I AM AN AMERICAN FIGHTING MAN"**

I am an American fighting man. I serve in the forces which guard my country and our way of life. I am prepared to give my life in their defense.

*Article I, Code of Conduct*

Every American in military service is committed personally to the task of defending American security and American principles, with his life if necessary. The American fighting man is trained to fight. It is obviously his duty to resist any foe of the United States.

Resistance can be a very personal matter, as Staff Sergeant Jimmie E. Howard can testify. In June 1966, Staff Sergeant Howard and his reconnaissance platoon of 18 men were occupying an observation post deep within enemy-controlled territory in South Vietnam when they were attacked by a battalion-size force of enemy soldiers. During repeated assaults on the Marine position and despite severe wounds, Staff Sergeant Howard encouraged his men and directed their fire, distributed ammunition, and directed repeated air strikes on the enemy. After a night of intense fighting which resulted in five men killed and all but one wounded, the beleagured platoon still held its position. Later, when evacuation helicopters approached the platoon's position, Staff Sergeant Howard warned them away

and continued to direct air strikes and small arms fire on the enemy to ensure a secure landing zone. For his valiant leadership, courageous fighting spirit, and refusal to let his unit be beaten despite the overwhelming odds, Staff Sergeant Howard was awarded the Medal of Honor. Staff Sergeant Howard's heroic actions reflect the highest spirit of the American fighting man.

*OUR WAY OF LIFE*

The American way of life is many things and has been described in many ways. They all add up to freedom based on respect for human dignity and the inherent rights of the individual. Rights and responsibilities go hand in hand. The responsible American willingly assumes the obligations of citizenship, knowing that this is a small price to pay for the freedom he enjoys. He knows, too, that his personal freedom is restricted by law only when it infringes on the rights of others.

Within the framework of liberty under law, Americans are free to pursue a private life of their own making, to make choices. We can bring up our children as we see fit, choose our own religion and philosophy, vote freely for those who represent us in government, choose our jobs, and move from one job to another. We have an equal opportunity to develop our talents and to get as far ahead in life as our abilities permit.

Our moral values, which influence our social values, are rooted in the Judeo-Christian tradition, which fosters the brotherhood of man under the fatherhood of God. Respecting the religious convictions of everyone, we exempt the conscientious objector from the violence of war while requiring him to serve if needed in a nonviolent capacity.

Our remarkably durable Constitution protects the freedom we enjoy as Americans. To guarantee the rights of the individual, the Bill of Rights was quickly added to the Constitution as the first ten amendments. It assures, among other basic rights, freedom of worship, of speech, and of the press.

We Americans, born and reared in a free and open society, are so accustomed to freedom that we seldom give it a thought. It was vitally important to our forefathers who fought for it, and Americans who have had to defend it considered it well worth fighting for. To those who place a true value on our way of life, no sacrifice is too great to make for it. They echo the words of Patrick Henry, "Give me liberty or give me death."

"I AM PREPARED TO GIVE MY LIFE"

*"I only regret that I have but one life to lose for my country."* Nathan Hale spoke these immortal words in the shadow of the gallows.

Life held great promise for Hale, a graduate of Yale who taught school in Connecticut. Soon after the Lexington alarm in 1775, he wrote his father that "a sense of duty" urged him to "sacrifice everything" for his country. He entered the Army as a lieutenant and a few months later became a captain.

After the retreat of the Army from Long Island in 1776, General Washington asked for a discreet officer to enter the British lines and get information on British plans. Hale volunteered.

Disguised as a Dutch schoolmaster, he visited the British camp where he made drawings and notes on the dispostion of the British Army. While trying to return, he was captured by the British and ordered executed the next morning.

Denied the comfort of a Bible or clergyman, Hale stood facing the gallows. Instead of cringing, he spoke those famous words that reveal the full measure of his devotion to his country.

Many gallant American fighting men, as was Nathan Hale, echo the eloquent words of the poet John McCrae, who, in

his poem "In Flanders Fields" speaks for the dead of WWI who were buried in Northern France. The last lines of the poem speak to the living:

*Take up our quarrel with the foe:*
*To you from failing hands we throw*
*The torch; be yours to hold it high.*
*If ye break faith with us who die*
*We shall not sleep, though poppies grow*
*In Flanders Fields.*

John McCrae (1872-1918)

**"I WILL NEVER SURRENDER"**

**I will never surrender of my own free will. If in command, I will never surrender my men while they still have the means to resist.**

***Article II, Code of Conduct***

The tradition of "never surrender" was born during the Revolutionary War. On land and at sea, U.S. fighting men proved their mettle.

On September 1779, John Paul Jones, Captain of the *Bonhomme Richard*, challenged two British ships of war, the *Serapis* and the *Countess of Scarborough*. Old and slow, the *Richard* was outclassed. The *Serapis* was beating in one of the *Richard's* sides while the *Countess* was blowing out the other. The *Richard* caught fire again and again. Meanwhile, the water in her holds was rising alarmingly.

"Do you ask for quarter?" called the captain of the *Serapis*.

"I have not yet begun to fight," Jones hurled back.

The outcome is well known. After three and a half hours of fighting, the *Serapis* struck her flag. Then Jones and his crew boarded the *Serapis* and watched with mixed emotions as the *Richard* sank.

The spirit of John Paul Jones has inspired America's fighting men ever since. On many occasions, the will to resist, no matter how unfavorable the odds, has served other fighting men as well as it did Jones.

In modern war, combat units or individual combatants may frequently find themselves isolated from the main body of friendly forces. Without communications, the situation may appear hopeless. Even with radio or other communications, the isolated unit or individual cannot be completely aware of what goes on outside the immediate area.

However, there are innumerable instances in which isolated units have fought their way out or held fast until joined by other friendly forces. At other times they have slipped through enemy lines. Airmen shot down deep in enemy territory have walked hundreds of miles, living off natural foods from the land and avoiding capture, in order to reach friendly territory. Soldiers, Sailors, Airmen, or Marines—they were fulfilling their missions and their obligations.

*OF YOUR OWN FREE WILL*

Recognizing the different circumstances—the confusion, uncertainty, apprehension, and other pressures on the man who finds himself isolated in combat—the simple guideline suggests itself—*the fighting man must never surrender of his own free will.*

It should not be necessary to define the meaning of the words "his own free will." If a man gives up, he will know whether his surrender is willful. No amount of rationalizing will rid him of the stigma of failure if his surrender was born of weakness. His sense of failure and the realization of his lack of will are with him for the rest of his life.

As long as a fighting man can inflict casualties on the enemy, he is selling himself short if he does not. For the casualties he inflicts, however few, or the disruption he effects in the enemy's attack may be the determining factor in repelling the enemy and in his rejoining friendly forces. In case he is iso-

lated and can no longer inflict casualties, perhaps because he lacks ammunition, it becomes his duty to evade capture.

Once in Korea, a machinegunner found himself isolated. He had fired all his ammunition and worn out two gun barrels in the process. In this seemingly helpless situation he hid in his foxhole as hordes of attacking Chinese Communist soldiers streamed by. But as the last of the enemy passed his position, his own forces moved in from the flanks and cut off the Chinese.

Suppose a man surrenders while he still has the means to fight back or can remain in hiding. What can he expect to gain in captivity? In Korea, four out of ten American prisoners of the Communists died. Untold numbers were coldly executed shortly after laying down their arms, and these were not included in the "prisoner" statistics. The odds are in favor of a man who sticks by his guns. Since many of the deaths in a prison camp result from *lack of will*, the person who surrenders to the enemy for that very same reason is even less likely to survive.

*IF IN COMMAND*

No responsible U.S. commander advocates suicidal resistance for its own sake when the ultimate result is a purposeless loss of life. Vice Admiral C. A. Lockwood, USN (Ret), expressed this viewpoint in these words:

> After all, great generals, in many wars, have surrendered their troops to prevent useless loss of life, but you must always remember that you may be occupying a strategic position which must be held as long as possible in order to keep the enemy from getting behind our own lines. There are a number of alternatives to surrender, such as slipping through the surrounding enemy line to your own troops or even back of the enemy lines.

The primary alternative to surrender is to *fight* your way out. This is what the U.S. First Marine Division did in Korea in late 1950. Caught in a mountainous area near the Chosin reservoir, the Division was surrounded by Chinese Communists. The aim of the Chinese was plain—to annihilate the Marines. Not only would this be a demoralizing blow to all U.N. forces, but it would eliminate a sizable element of the then available American combat strength. For this task the enemy had tremendous numerical superiority. With no relief possible, unquestionably the problem for the surrounded unit became one of survival and breakout. As the Marine commander pointed out, when a fighting unit is surrounded by the enemy there is no such thing as retreat.

Three weeks of fighting in subzero cold preceded the ten day ordeal of the breakout. There were daily instances of smaller units and individuals breaking out of smaller pockets of isolation, fighting their way or infiltrating through Communist forces, sometimes simply to join a larger force that still had to fight its way out. These included British Commandos, U.S. Army men, and men from other forces—fighting men all.

Casualties? Of course there were—heavy casualties. Some were due to the constant assault of the enemy, others due to the bitter elements of the North Korean winter. But how many more would there have been if they had surrendered? How many would have died as prisoners of war?

Often the decision to keep fighting or to surrender will be made not by an officer but by an enlisted man. During a land battle, more of direct command

authority will be exercised by squad leaders than by generals, for the simple reason that there are more of them. Not infrequently, when casualties are high, even the senior private in the remnants of a combat unit must assume leadership of his unit. He may not be as well prepared in terms of training or experience as those of higher rank, but he remains in command for the duration of the battle or until properly relieved. That command carries with it certain responsibilities and demands that cannot be set aside. It is his job to keep his men fighting as a unit as long as they can fight. In short, if individuals and commanders were permitted to surrender whenever a situation seemed desperate it would be an open invitation to all weak of will or depressed in spirit.

As an individual, *a member of the Armed Forces may never voluntarily surrender himself.* When he is isolated and can no longer inflict casualties on the enemy, it is his duty to evade capture and rejoin the nearest friendly forces.

The responsibility and authority of a commander never extend to the surrender of his command to the enemy while it has power to resist or evade. When isolated, cut off, or surrounded, a unit must continue to fight until relieved, or able to rejoin friendly forces by breaking out or evading the enemy.

**"IF I AM CAPTURED"**

**If I am captured, I will continue to resist by all means available. I will make every effort to escape and aid others to escape. I will accept neither parole nor special favors from the enemy.**

***Article III, Code of Conduct***

The moment the PW decides to resist, come what may, he deprives the enemy of the weapon of fear—and he removes the main psychological obstacle to his survival. His conquest of fear relieves him from being torn between hope and fear. His mind is alert to problems of survival and escape.

Obviously, the prisoner's means of resisting are limited. He simply has to take some treatment against which his instincts rebel. Consider what happened to a PW in Korea who struck a guard for wiping his feet on the prisoner's clothes. The prisoner was placed in a box about 30 inches square and kept there for nine hours. Afterwards, his arms were handcuffed to his ankles for three or four days, and then he was handcuffed in the usual manner for about six weeks. We can admire his courage, but this kind of resistance serves no useful purpose. It takes even more "guts" to accept insults and abuse.

For the time being, the prisoner's best resistance is passive resistance. His means of resisting are mental and moral. He must keep his will to resist alive at all costs. The enemy's persistent efforts to destroy it proves how potent a weapon mental resistance is.

Disarmed, the PW could feel completely helpless—*if* he let himself. But he is not alone. His country and his Service are with him in spirit, sustaining him in this crucial hour. When he repeats to himself the words of the Code, he is communicating with his fellow Americans. Living by the Code, he knows he is fighting their fight as well as his own. He knows, too, that he is keeping faith with America's fighting men of the past. From these sources he draws strength to resist his captors.

*ESCAPE*

The prisoner has one alternative to taking whatever treatment his captors choose to apply. That is escape. He must concentrate all his resources toward escape—for himself and others. This entails the full application of his remaining means—wits, will, and patience.

*These men know what it is to live by the Code of Conduct. They are American POW's held captive by the North Vietnamese in Hanoi early in 1973. They were brought out of prison for an interview, but refused to speak, so as not to cooperate with the enemy in any way. One man hides his face as they are returned to prison, so that his picture could not be useful to the enemy for propaganda purposes. (Photo credit World Wide Photos)*

The Geneva Convention implicitly recognizes the right of a prisoner of war to try to escape by limiting to disciplinary measures only the punishment for this act, even if it is repeated. The punishment for certain acts committed solely to facilitate escape is similarly restricted. These are acts "such as offenses against public property, theft without intention of self-enrichment, the drawing up or use of false papers, or the wearing of civilian clothing." This restriction does not apply to acts entailing violence to life or limb or thefts for self-enrichment when committed during an attempt to escape.

The PW should never give his captor any valid reason to label him a war criminal and treat him as one.

Except in extremely desperate circumstances, the PW should avoid violence during his escape. His situation is considered truly deperate if he feels death at enemy hands is imminent, or if the objective of his trek to freedom—friendly forces or neutral territory—is actually in sight and physical action might eliminate the final obstacle to his bid for freedom.

It is important to use good judgment in planning to escape. Making advance plans and preparations can go far in assuring the success of an escape attempt. But this isn't always possible. An opportunity of the moment—the careless guard, a friendly one interested in deserting, or the confusion created by an air raid or attack—may be the only

chance for escape the PW will get. He should remain alert to such opportunities.

Chances to escape are more likely to occur in the early stages of captivity, before transfer to a prison camp. Once in an established camp, the prisoner may be able to organize an underground escape committee. This increases the chances of a successful escape.

## *PAROLE AND "FAVORS"*

A captor's devices—especially a Communist captor's—to subdue a prisoner or render him complacent are many and varied. Among the more subtle of these is the offer of parole—the binding promise of a prisoner of war that, in exchange for his release from custody, he will return to custody at an appointed time or, that upon being set at liberty he will not again bear arms against the detaining power.

It is sometimes suggested that captured chaplains and medical personnel should accept parole in order to minister to other prisoners. In accordance with the Geneva Convention parole is not necessary for such persons in that they are "retained" personnel, rather than prisoners, with minimal restrictions placed upon them in order that they may render their services as needed.

Recognizing that the captor is in a position to make parole terms advantageous to themselves and disadvantageous to an unwitting captive, *the United States expressly forbids its captive fighting men to enter into such agreement with the enemy.*

Another ruse of captors such as the Communists is to offer special favors not involving parole. However innocent these offers may seem, you may be sure there are strings attached. The cigarette or bit of candy offered by an interrogator at the beginning of a session, apparently to establish a relaxed atmosphere, may place the prisoner under an obligation. The wisest course is to reject all favors, even in exchange for what may seem to be very minor concessions. Such offers should be reported promptly to the senior in command of the prisoner group.

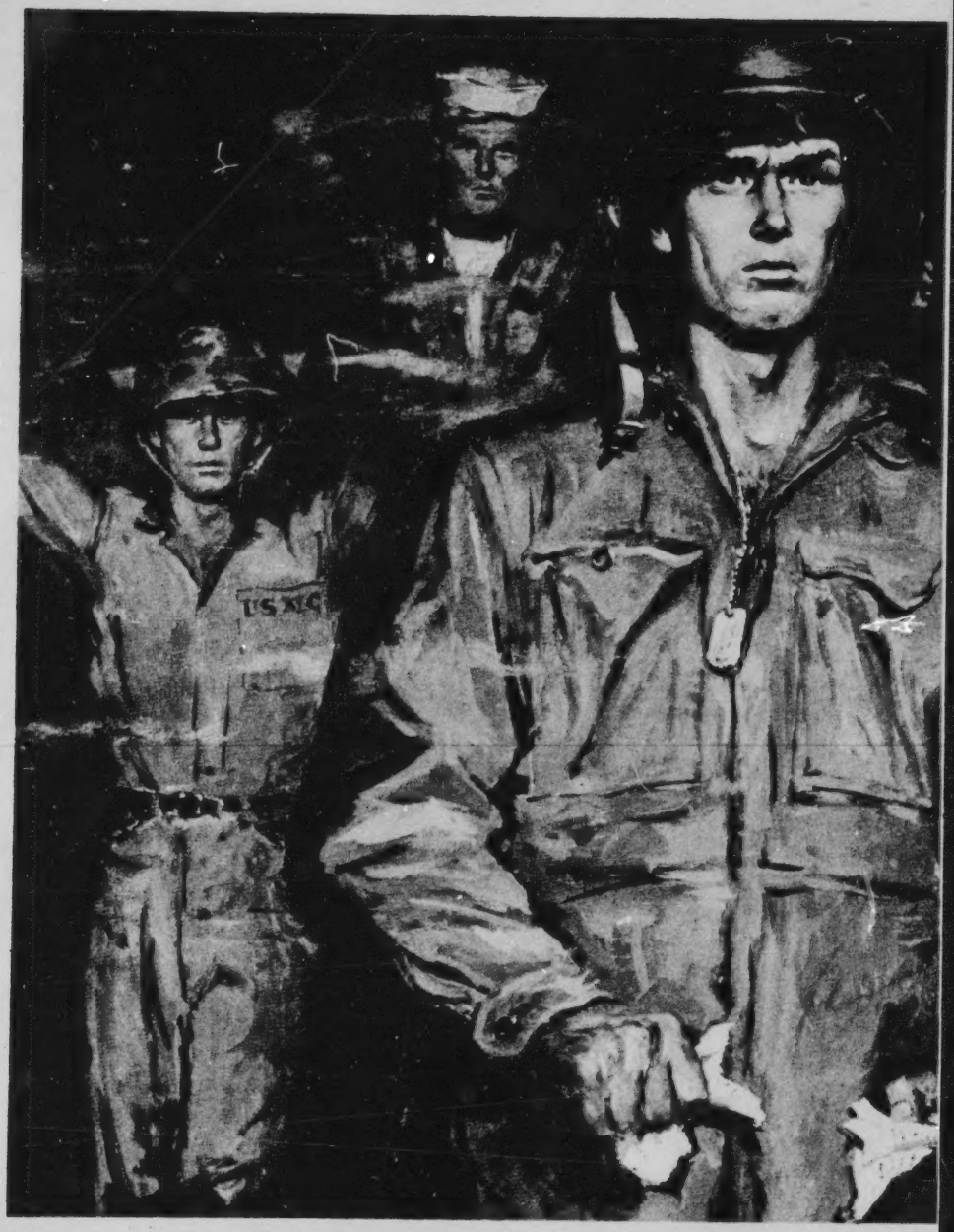
There are several reasons why favors should not be accepted—even as a "planned" deception, so that the proceeds may be divided among the group. In the first place, such a deception would necessarily involve pretense, which could lead to a trap. For another, there can be no overall benefit to the group for the simple reason that the favors—or the funds to purchase them—will have come from the sources allotted for the prisoners anyway. The prisoner who accepts favors and keeps them for himself is indirectly stealing from his fellows. And even if he accepts them in order to share them with the others later, he is contributing to the downfall of his group by allowing the enemy to increase his control over it. It thus becomes apparent that the captive fighting man must not accept special favors from the enemy. Instead, he will make every effort to resist, to escape if possible, and to help others to escape. In the PW camp, as in battle, there is no place for the coward. The watchword in either place is "Keep up the fight."

**"I WILL KEEP FAITH"**

**If I become a prisoner of war, I will keep faith with my fellow prisoners. I will give no information or take part in any action which might be harmful to my comrades. If I am senior, I will take command. If not, I will obey the lawful orders of those appointed over me and will back them up in every way.**

***Article IV, Code of Conduct***

Informing, or any other action to the detriment of a fellow prisoner, is despicable and is expressly forbidden. Prisoners of war must avoid helping




*A Prisoner of War is loyal to his fellow prisoners, and to the principles of the Code of Conduct. He does nothing which will be harmful in any way to his fellow prisoners, and he continuously resists giving any information or aid to the enemy.*

the enemy identify fellow prisoners who may have knowledge of particular value to the enemy, and may therefore be made to suffer coercive interrogation.

Strong leadership is essential to discipline. Without discipline, camp organization, resistance, and even survival may be impossible. Personal hygiene, camp sanitation, and care of sick and wounded are imperative. Officers and noncommissioned officers of the United States will continue to carry out their responsibilities and exercise their authority subsequent to capture. The senior line officer or noncommissioned officer within the prisoner of war camp or group of prisoners will assume command according to rank (or precedence) without regard to Service.

Lieutenant Colonel William G. Thrash, a U.S. Marine Corps aviator, won a Gold Star in lieu of a second Legion of Merit for his conduct as a senior officer in a Korean prison camp. Although threatened with harsh punishment if he attempted to organize resistance, and under constant surveillance, he went to work tightening discipline and uniting the prisoners—officers from several nations. For his work in counteracting Communist indoctrination, the colonel endured solitary confinement for eight months, intense mental pressure, and physical maltreatment. All of these efforts to "break" him succeeded only in strengthening his influence upon the other prisoners.

This responsibility and accountability may not be evaded. If the senior officer or noncommissioned officer is incapacitated or unable to act for any reason, command will be assumed by the next senior. If the foregoing organization cannot be effected, an organization of elected representatives, as provided for in the Geneva Convention relative to Treatment of Prisoners of War, or a covert organization, or both will be formed.

### "NAME, RANK, SERVICE NUMBER"

**When questioned, should I become a prisoner of war, I am bound to give only name, rank, service number, and date of birth. I will evade answering further questions to the utmost of my ability. I will make no oral or written statements disloyal to my country and its allies or harmful to their cause.**

***Article V, Code of Conduct***

When questioned, a prisoner of war is required by the Geneva Convention and permitted by the Code of Conduct to disclose his name, rank, service number, and date of birth. A prisoner of war may also communicate with the enemy regarding his individual health or welfare as a prisoner of war and, when appropriate, on routine matters of camp administration. Oral or written confessions true or false, questionnaires, personal history statements, propaganda recordings and broadcasts, appeals to other prisoners of war, signatures to peace or surrender appeals, self-criticisms, or any other oral or written communication on behalf of the enemy which are critical or harmful to the United States, its allies, the Armed Forces, or other prisoners are forbidden.

It is a violation of the Geneva Convention to place a prisoner of war under physical or mental torture or any other form of coercion to secure from him information of any kind. If, however, a prisoner is subjected to such treatment, he will endeavor to avoid by every means the disclosure of any information, or making of any statement or the performance of any action harmful to the interests of the United States or its allies or which will provide aid or comfort to the enemy.

Under Communist block reservations to the Geneva Convention, the signing of a confession or the making of a statement by a prisoner is likely to be used

to convict him as a war criminal under the laws of his captors. This conviction has the effect of removing him from the prisoner of war status and denying him any protection under terms of the Geneva Convention and repatriation until a prison sentence is served.

The PW may be subjected to extreme coercion. Still, he must resist to the limit of his ability. He can't expect to fall back to successive lines of resistance. Once he has gone beyond the first—his name, rank, service number, and date of birth—in almost any respect whatever, he has taken the first step that leads to collaboration. On the first line he must endeavor to stand to the end.

**"I WILL NEVER FORGET"**

**I will never forget that I am an American fighting man, responsible for my actions, and dedicated to the principles which made my country free. I will trust in my God and in the United States of America.**

***Article VI, Code of Conduct***

Article VI of the Code of Conduct is much like Article I. It was written this way purposely. The repeated words "I am an American fighting man" are perhaps the most important words of the Code. They signify a person's faith and confidence—in his God, his country, his Service, and himself. They are words to remember with pride.

## *RESPONSIBLE FOR MY ACTIONS*

The provisions of the Uniform Code of Military Justice continue to apply to members of the Armed Forces while they are prisoners of war. The circumstances of an individual's capture and his conduct during his detention are subject to examination, with due regard for the PW's rights as an individual and consideration for the conditions of his captivity. Any man may face overwhelming odds. If this explains a person's capture, his Government will be understanding.

*The captured American fliers in the picture above are shown enjoying a rare treat, comfortable chairs and soft drinks. The North Vietnamese posed this setting in the hopes that the POW's would provide assistance to the enemy; special favors are not offered without a purpose, but one form of resistance is refusing to cooperate, and remaining responsible to the principles of America. (Photo credit World Wide Photos)*

While he is a PW, his conduct will be weighed by his fellow prisoners. He will also weigh his own conduct. He will *know* whether or not he is acting as a responsible fighting man.

If his conduct as a prisoner of war requires official examination, his guilt or innocence will be determined not by sentiment, but by the actual facts. In short, his conduct will be judged by what could reasonably be expected of a loyal, dedicated fighting man under the conditions he is called upon to endure. If his actions are honorable, he earns the undying gratitude of his fellow countrymen.

### *PRINCIPLES THAT MADE OUR COUNTRY FREE*

> "We hold these truths to be self-evident, that all men are created equal, that they are endowed by their Creator with certain unalienable rights, that among these are Life, Liberty, and the pursuit of Happiness. That to secure these rights, Governments instituted among Men, deriving their just powers from the consent of the governed. . ."

The Declaration of Independence contains the essence of our democratic faith. It expressed the sentiments of the colonists and provided a common statement of a new nation's reasons for fighting for freedom. The principles of the Declaration heartened the soldier in the Revolutionary War, and they serve as a time-tested standard for the American fighting man today. So long as those principles are cherished, so long will our free and representative government endure—and inspire those who seek human freedom and who believe in the dignity and worth of every human being. Such principles are worth fighting for.

### *TRUST IN GOD*

Most religions consider valor and patriotism virtues of the highest order. The person with firm moral convictions and the courage to defend them at any cost is able to defend himself and to maintain his integrity as a man, whether or not he considers himself a religious person.

The United States, when still a young, hard-pressed Nation, proudly proclaimed the familiar slogan: "In God We Trust." Even those men who do not subscribe to a formal creed generally recognize a God who rules the world with justice and mercy.

> Centuries ago a soldier wrote in the 23d Psalm:
>
> *Yea, though I walk through the valley of the shadow of death, I will fear no evil: for Thou art with me.*

### *TRUST IN COUNTRY*

Every war tests the patience and endurance of the men who fight it. In any war some battles will inevitably be lost, and it is easy to yield to despair. In times of war, communications sometimes break down and messages from home do not arrive. The prisoner of war is less likely than others to receive mail and may grow intensely worried about his family. The enemy may try to add to his worries by telling him that he has been forgotten by his family and by his country.

When signing the Code of Conduct, President Eisenhower declared:

> No American prisoner of war will be forgotten by the United States.
>
> Every available means will be employed by our government to establish contact with, to support and obtain the release of all our prisoners of war.
>
> Furthermore, the laws of the United States provide for the support

and care of dependents of members of the Armed Forces including those who become prisoners of war. I assure dependents of such prisoners that these laws will continue to provide for their welfare.

*THE CODE AS ARMOR*

The Code of Conduct is the U.S. fighting man's armor, forged for him by generations of American fighting men—men of selfless devotion to duty and country, men to whom honor was more important than life itself.

The precepts of the Code are reflected today in countless acts by individual servicemen and units. Sometimes they are publicized; more often they are not.

Resistance, either in combat or as a PW, can bring death to a fighting man. A wise man understands and accepts this. Resistance can also help him survive and turn defeat into victory. This is why the Code of Conduct stresses resistance.

The best means of avoiding the grim life of a prisoner is to aviod capture. If captivity is inevitable, the next best thing is to escape. This is never easy to do, but some will always find a way.

"The U.S. Marine prisoner made a desperate leap, grabbed the carbine of one of his captors, cocked it, and looked straight down the barrel at the three surprised Viet Cong. And then it was a whole new ball game." So begins a dramatic account in the Harrisburg (Pa.) *Patriot* of the escape of two Marines in 1966. The two—Sergeant James S. Dodson and Lance Corporal Walter W. Eckes—had been led, bound and barefooted, at the end of ropes, to a Communist prison camp where they first met each other on 12 May 1966. They at once began planning to escape. Their chance came when the Viet Cong carelessly propped their carbines against a tree about 10 feet away. It was Sergeant Dodson who leaped for the carbine. Corporal Eckes grabbed another as the three astonished guards beat a hasty retreat down the trail. The two Marines took off in the opposite direction. After traveling for four grueling days along mountain trails, through dense jungle, elephant grass, and rice paddies, they rejoined friendly forces at the Danang air base.

Successful resistance depends to a great extent on *esprit de corps* and discipline, whether on the battlefield or in a prisoner of war camp. The great majority of American PW's in Korea stood by one another like brothers. If one was sick they took care of him—washed his clothes, bathed him, and pulled him through. The Communists could not win their cooperation.

Some say that "Every man has his breaking point." If this means that any man can be broken physically, driven to the point where he collapses from pain, hunger, or lack of sleep, the statement is true. But it is *not* true that a man of integrity can reach a point at which —to escape further suffering—he will consciously and willingly do or say things to dishonor himself and his country.

The Code of Conduct is a shield against the physical, mental, and moral stress of battle. To the unfortunate few who find themselves prisoners of a ruthless enemy, it may provide the only hope for survival. Honoring the Code is a binding obligation to those of the military service. Unswerving, uncompromising allegiance to the Code imparts real meaning to the words, "I am an American fighting man."

CHAPTER 12

# CIVIL DEFENSE

A major emergency affecting a large number of people may occur anytime and anywhere. It may be a peacetime disaster such as a flood, tornado, fire, hurricane, blizzard, or earthquake. It could be an enemy nuclear attack on the United States, but whatever the type of disaster, lives can be saved if people are prepared for the emergency, and know what actions to take when it occurs.

All over the country various levels of government; city, county, state and federal government; have a continuing program for developing their civil defense systems. The fallout shelters, supporting equipment, and emergency plans needed to reduce the loss of life from enemy attack or natural disaster have already proven themselves by saving lives and relieving suffering in many peacetime disasters. Citizens have been warned of impending storms and similar dangers, told how to protect themselves, sheltered from the elements, fed and clothed, treated for injury and illness, and given help in resuming their normal lives. In cooperation with the U.S. Office of Civil Defense, cities and towns all over our nation have become better prepared to deal effectively with peacetime disaster, and thus could, if required, react to the threat of a nuclear attack with some experience.

This chapter is designed to introduce you to basic general information on both nuclear attack and major natural disasters. This general guidance is in addition to specific instructions issued by local governments, but is applicable to all areas in most situations. The more knowledge you have, as a citizen of your community, concerning preparedness for disaster, the better citizen you will be.

The U.S. Office of Civil Defense coordinates all information and action relative to civil defense for the federal government, and serves as a clearing house for information for all governmental agencies in civil defense matters. The national civil defense organization is structured in such a way that the fifty states and various territories of the nation are divided into eight regions. Office of Civil Defense national headquarters is in Washington, D.C., and regional headquarters are located at Maynard, Massachusetts; Olney, Maryland; Thomasville, Georgia; Battle Creek, Michigan; Denton, Texas; Denver, Colorado; Santa Rosa, California; and Bothell, Washington.

In the following pages we will discuss the types of hazards and types of emergency action which might be expected to occur in your community. The first portion of the chapter will deal with the following types of hazards: nuclear attacks, floods, hurricanes, tornadoes, earthquakes, and blizzards. The next portion concerns the types of emergency action which might be required: warning, shelter, supplies, water, food, and sanitation, fire, and medical. Finally we'll discuss an emergency action checklist which you might adapt to your own local needs.

## TYPES OF HAZARDS

Many actions recommended to help you live through a nuclear attack are equally useful for survival of natural disasters, and so any effort you take to prepare for nuclear attack will also assist you in coping with most peacetime disasters—disasters that kill hundreds of Americans every year, injure thousands, inflict widespread suffering and hardship, and cause great economic loss to communities of all sizes. You can give yourself and your family a much better chance of surviving and recovering from any type of hazard if you take time *now* to do the following:

a. Understand the dangers you will face if you area is hit by storm, flood, nuclear attack or one of the other hazards.

b. Make your own preparations for all emergencies.

c. Learn what actions you should take at the time of the emergency.

Perhaps the most basic thing to remember is to *KEEP CALM*. This alone may mean the difference between life and death in any emergency. In disasters of all sorts people have been killed or injured needlessly because they took thoughtless actions when they should have done something else—or done nothing at all at that particular time. TAKE TIME TO THINK, and then take the appropriate action for the emergency at hand. Let's look first at the characteristics of the threats of the various types of hazards, ranging from nuclear attack to snowstorms.

### *NUCLEAR ATTACK*

If an enemy should threaten to attack the United States, you would certainly not be alone. The entire nation would be mobilizing to repulse the attack, destroy the enemy, and hold down our loss of life. Much help would be available to you from local, state, and federal governments, from armed forces units, and from others involved in the nationwide civil defense system. This system includes fallout shelters to protect people from the radioactive fallout that would result from a nuclear attack, warning and communications networks, local control centers, and emergency broadcasting stations.

**The Hazards of Nuclear Attack.** When a nuclear bomb or missile explodes, the main effects produced are intense light (flash), heat, blast, and radiation. The strength of these effects depends on the size and the type of weapon, how far away the explosion is, weather conditions (sunny or rainy, windy or still), the terrain (flat or hilly), and the distance of the explosion from ground level (high in the air or near the surface). In the event of a nuclear explosion the people who happened to be close to the explosion, in the heavy destruction area, would probably be killed or seriously injured by the blast or by the heat or the nuclear fireball. Persons a few miles away—in the "fringe area"—would be endangered by the blast, the heat, and by fires the explosion might start. People outside this fringe area need not fear the blast, heat, and fires, but the main danger for them would be radioactive fallout. Such fallout would endanger everyone not already killed by more direct effects of the explosion.

When a nuclear weapon explodes near the ground, great quantities of pulverized earth and other debris are sucked up into the nuclear cloud. There the radioactive gases produced by the exposion condense on and into this debris, producing radioactive particles which then fall back to the earth. The particles emit invisible gamma rays—like X-rays—which can kill or injure people. Most of this radioactive energy is given off by the particles quickly, so the first few hours or days after an attack are the most dangerous. While the fallout

particles may or may not be seen, looking like dust, their rays cannot be detected without special instruments which identify them as radioactive and measure their intensity.

**Fallout Dangers.** Depending on wind currents, weather conditions, and other factors, the distribution of fallout particles caused by a nuclear explosion will vary greatly. It is impossible to predict which areas of the country might be affected, or at what time fallout will commence. No community of the U.S. can be sure of *not* getting any fallout, and most communities can expect to be affected in some way by fallout. Generally, the first twenty-four hours after particles began falling would be the most dangerous period, but that doesn't mean that everything is safe after that first day.

The invisible gamma rays given off by radioactive fallout particles can cause radiation sickness, which can be fatal if a large dose of gamma rays is received in a short time. The severity of the sickness depends not only on the amount of rays to which you are exposed, but also on the time period involved. The same dose of radiation received over a short time is more damaging than if it is received over a longer period. The very young, the very old, and persons in poor health suffer more from radiation sickness.

Remember that people exposed to radiation from nuclear fallout do not themselves become radioactive, and therefore they cannot pass the sickness to others. Gamma radiation damages the cells of the body only when a person is exposed to radioactive substances. No special clothing can protect you from raditation, and no drug can make you immune, but some medicines are helpful in treating infections that sometimes follow excessive exposure to fallout particles, so the primary preventive measure to take against radiation from fallout is to just stay inside a good fallout shelter. In most places it is unlikely that full-time shelter occupancy would be required for more than a week or two. The specifics of shelter preparation will be discussed later, but some general ideas about radiation shelter are appropriate now.

**Fallout Shelter.** The further you are from radioactive fallout particles, the less radiation you will receive. Also, the building materials between you and the particles will absorb many of the gamma rays. Dirt, concrete, brick, and lumber are typical materials which absorb gamma rays. A fallout shelter does not, therefore, have to be a special type of building or bunker. It may be any space with walls thick and heavy enough to absorb fallout particle radiation. The basement of a home or office building, a subway tunnel or corridor of a very large building, or even a backyard trench with a heavy roof can protect you from radiation, blast, and heat effects.

**Food and Water.** The danger of people receiving harmful doses of fallout radiation through food, water or milk is very small. Gamma rays passing through food and fluid do not make them radioactive, so most of the nation's food supplies would be usable after an attack. The only real danger is swallowing food or water which has fallout particles in it; therefore, food and water which has been covered, and protected from fallout particles, should be safe if the containers are wiped or washed clean. Water stored in covered containers and wells is not likely to be contaminated, nor is water in open containers kept inside. Even water in lakes and streams will be safe in a short time, for the radioactive particles will settle to the bottom, and normal filtering will dispose of any particles suspended in the water. It is possible that the thyroid glands of

infants can be harmed by drinking milk from cows which have eaten contaminated grass, so it is wise to use only canned or powdered milk until authorities say that fresh, whole milk is safe.

To say it all in a nutshell, the dangers of a nuclear explosion are blast, heat, fires, and radiation from fallout. For self protection: get inside a shelter, put out fires in your area, and avoid falling particles. Available food and water is probably safe, if it contains no fallout particles and finally, only fallout particles can give you radiation sickness; persons who are sick are not contagious.

## *FLOODS AND HURRICANES*

There are certain emergency actions paticularly associated with floods, hurricanes and storm tides. These types of disasters are usually preceeded by extended periods of warning, giving sufficient time for people living in areas likely to be most severly affected to move to safer locations. Many of the discussion items which follow are keyed to your receiving some warning.

**Evacuation.** When evacuating your home or school and moving to a safer place temporarily, the primary rule of

*Raging winds and swiftly moving waters can quickly destroy any business or residential area. When local authorities advise evacuation, your safety depends on how quickly you act. The floods of 1972 in Northern Virginia caused this normally busy street to look like a deserted boat dock, and lives were saved then only because the townspeople heeded the warnings of local leaders.*

safety is to follow the instructions and advice of your local government. Do what the authorities say, when they recommend doing it, and do nothing else. Evacuate promptly, to the place named, and go no other place. Authorities sending out warning have much more information than you do, so believe what they say. Travel by the routes advised, without using your own shortcuts. If told to do so, shut off all utilities before leaving. Listen to the radio and learn where the mass emergency shelter and food stations are located in your area. Any instructions given are for your safety, and the safety of your neighbors; ignoring these instructions can only harm you and your family. If there is time before you evacuate, secure your home as best you can.

Bring outside possessions into the house, or tie them down securely. Outdoor furniture, garbage cans, and other such items may blow or wash away, and in so doing they may endanger someone else. Board up your windows to keep out flying debris, and flood waters. If flooding is likely, move furniture and other movable material to upper floors, or to higher levels. Disconnect electrical appliances you can't move, but don't touch them if you are wet. Lock house doors and windows. Close and lock doors and windows of any autos you are not taking with you. *Do not* stack sandbags around the outside walls of your house to keep flood waters out of the basement. This may cause water pressure to build up around the basement and under the floor. Unequal water pressure of this type can cause structural damage to the house.

While evacuating to a safer area, travel with care. Leave in time to avoid flood waters; follow recommended routes; make certain you have sufficient gasoline. Continue listening to the radio for additional information and instructions. Whether driving or walking, watch for washed-out roads, earthslides, falling objects, loose or downed electric wires, and areas where streams may flood very suddenly. Don't try to cross a stream or a flooded street or bridge unless you are certain that the water is not above your knees, or the middle of the car's wheels, *all the way across.* Swirling waters may hide a fallen bridge, or a washed-out roadway. When driving in water, drive slowly, in low gear. Water splashing on an engine will stop it, and you will be stranded. Remember that wet brakes may not function well. Tap them to dry them and ensure proper operation when you get out of the water.

**During the Hurricane.** During the storm or flood, stay indoors, if it is safe at all to do so. Don't try to travel, since you will be in danger from flying or floating debris, washed out roads, and downed electric wires. Continue to monitor the radio or television constantly for further information or advice from the authorities. When the "eye" of a hurricane passes over you, there will be a lull in the wind for a period of time, perhaps as long as a half hour or more. Stay inside during this lull, so you won't get caught in an exposed situation when the wind returns from the opposite direction.

**Flash Floods.** In many areas, unusually heavy rains may cause quick or "flash" floods which fill small creeks, gullies, dry streambeds, ravines, culverts, or even low-lying ground with water very quickly, sometimes endangering people before any warning can be given. In a time of heavy rains, be aware of this hazard. If you see any possibility of a flash flood occurring move immediately to a safer area without waiting for instructions. Then notify the local authorities of the danger, so other people can be warned.

*TORNADOES*

If you are so unfortunate as to be caught by a tornado, there is nothing to do but ride the wind, and perhaps pray. However, if you have some warning, there are several protective actions to take.

**Tornado Forecast.** The announcement of a tornado watch means that tornadoes are expected in or near your area. Listen to the radio or television for further information and advice from the local authorities and the Weather Bureau. Also watch the sky, especially in the south and southwest. A tornado is a dark, revolving, funnel-shaped cloud; if you see anything that looks like it might be a tornado, report immediately to the local authorities or Weather Bureau, by telephone. But do not seek to obtain information by phone; use the broadcast system for this.

**Tornado Warning.** When a tornado warning is issued, take shelter immediately. The warning means that a tornado has actually been sighted, and may strike your vicinity. You must take action to protect yourself from being blown away, struck by falling objects, or injured by flying debris. Your best protection is an underground shelter or cave, or a substantial steelframed or reinforced-concrete building. But if none of these is available, there are other places where you can take refuge. At home or at school, go to the basement fallout shelter, if there is one. In a school or factory or business building, go to the inner hallway of the first floor if there is no basement. In a home basement take cover under a sturdy workbench or table, being careful not to place yourself under heavy appliances on the floor above. If your home has no basement, take cover under heavy furniture or in a small room in the center part of the house, away from doors and windows. Do not stay in a trailer or mobile home; you are probably safer outside than in a trailer. Doors and windows on the sides of your house *away* from the tornado may be left open to help equalize the air pressure and reduce damage to the building, but stay away from any openings because of the danger of flying debris.

If you are outside, and have no chance to get to a secure building, drive away from the tornado's path, at a right angle to it. If there isn't time for this, or if you are walking, take cover and lie flat in the nearest depression, such as a ditch, culvert, excavation, or ravine.

*WINTER STORMS—BLIZZARDS*

Winter storms — blizzards, heavy snows, ice storms, freezing rain, or sleet may be natural hazards in most parts of the country. Preparedness for such emergencies can make a real difference in survival and recovery.

**Keep Posted on Weather Conditions.** Even a few hours warning of a storm will enable you to avoid being caught outside, and will help you prepare to cope with the storm, so pay attention to radio, television, and newspaper information and forecasts on the weather. In order to better understand the terminology commonly used in reporting weather, the following terms are listed as standard:

a. A *blizzard* is the most dangerous of all winter storms. It combines cold air, heavy snow, and strong winds that blow the snow about and may reduce visibility to only a few yards.

b. A *blizzard warning* is issued when the Weather Bureau expects considerable snow, winds of 35 MPH or more, and temperatures of twenty degress F. or lower.

c. When a *severe blizzard warning* is issued, the temperature is expected to be below ten degrees, and the winds

are expected to gust in excess of 45 MPH.

d. *A heavy snow warning* usually means an expected snowfall of four inches or more in a 12 hour period, or six inches or more in a 24 hour period. Warnings of snow flurries or squalls or blowing and drifting snow are important mainly because visibility may be reduced and roads may become slippery or blocked.

e. *Freezing rain or freezing drizzle* is forecast when expected rain is likely to freeze as soon as it strikes the ground, putting a coating of ice or glaze on roads and everything else that is exposed. If a substantial layer of ice is expected to accumulate from the freezing rain, an *ice storm* is forecast.

f. *Sleet* is small particles of ice, usually mixed with rain. If enough sleet accumulates on the ground, it will make the roads slippery.

**Be prepared to be stranded at home.** Particularly if you live in a rural area, it is possible that you might be isolated in the house for a week or so without being able to leave, and with no one able to get to your home. So you should stock your house with survival supplies which would enable your family to cope with a storm of any severity. Keep a good supply of heating fuel on hand, and use it sparingly. Consider conserving fuel by keeping the house cooler than usual, or by closing off some rooms temporarily, in case your normal fuel supply is curtailed by weather and road conditions. It is also wise to have some sort of emergency heating equipment and fuel stored so you could keep at least one room of the house warm enough to be livable. You can use a camp stove, or wood or coal if you have a fireplace. Stock an emergency supply of food and water, food that requires no refrigeration or cooking, and emergency cooking equipment. Make sure you have a battery-powered radio and extra batteries, to keep up with weather forecasts and information and advice broadcast by local authorities. Flashlights and batteries or lanterns will also be needed. You should always, of course, have in your home simple fire-fighting equipment and a first-aid kit.

**Winter Storm Travel.** Avoid all unnecessary trips, traveling only if absolutely necessary. If you must travel during storms, use public transportation when possible. However, if you are forced to use your automobile for a trip of any distance, take the following precautions:

a. Ensure that your car is in good operating condition, properly serviced, and equipped with chains or snow tires.

b. Take another person with you if possible.

c. Make sure that someone knows where you are going, your approximate schedule, and your estimated time of arrival at your destination.

d. Have emergency "winter storm supplies" with you in the car, such as a container of sand, shovel, windshield scraper, tow chain or rope, extra gasoline, and a flashlight. It is also wise to carry extra gloves or mittens, overshoes, extra woolen socks, and winter headgear to cover your head and face.

e. Travel by daylight and use major highways if you can. Keep the car radio turned on for weather information and advice.

f. Drive with all possible caution. Don't try to save time by traveling faster than road and weather conditions permit.

g. Don't be daring or foolhardy. Stop, turn back, or seek help if conditions threaten that may test your ability or endurance, rather than risk being lost, stalled, or isolated. If you are caught in a blizzard, seek refuge immediately.

**Keep calm.** If you get into trouble in a storm—your car breaks down; you

get lost or stalled—don't panic. Think the problem through thoroughly, decide what's the safest and best thing to do, and then do it carefully and slowly. If you are on a well-traveled road, show a trouble signal by flashing the directional lights, raising the hood, or attaching a cloth to the radio aerial or window. Then stay in the car and wait for help to arrive. If you run the engine to keep warm, remember to open a window enough to provide ventilation and protect you from carbon monoxide poisoning. Wherever you are, do not leave your car to search for assistance unless there is a house or other source of help within sight, as you may become confused and get lost.

**Avoid overexertion.** Every winter many unnecessary deaths occur because people engage in more strenuous physical activity than their bodies can stand. Cold weather itself, without any physical exercise, puts an extra strain on your heart. If you add this to exercise, especially exercise that you are not accustomed to—such as shoveling snow, pushing an auto, or even walking fast or far—you are risking a heart attack, a stroke, or other damage to your body. In winter weather, especially in winter storms, be aware of this danger, and avoid overexertion.

*EARTHQUAKES*

If you live in one of the places where earthquakes are likely to occur in our country, there are several useful points worth remembering. First, when the quake happens, keep calm; don't

*An earthquake in Anchorage, Alaska in 1964 literally swallowed up homes such as the one pictured above. Knowing what to do, and doing it quickly, is essential when natural disaster threatens.*

run or panic. With proper precautions you will probably not be hurt. Stay where you are—if indoors, stay indoors; if outdoors stay outdoors. Many people are hurt while leaving or entering buildings, by falling walls, and electric wires. If you are indoors, take cover by an inside wall, in the basement if possible, or under a piece of furniture. Stay away from windows and outside doors. If you are outside when the earthquake begins, stay away from overhead electric wires, and poles, and anything else that might shake loose and fall on you. If you are driving an automobile, as soon as safely possible pull off the road and stop. Remain in the car until the disturbance subsides. When you drive on, watch for hazards created by the earthquake, such as fallen or falling objects, downed electric wires and broken or undermined roadways.

## TYPES OF EMERGENCY ACTION

There are certain things you can learn and do that will help you get ready for, and cope with, almost any type of natural disaster, as well as a possible nuclear attack. Perhaps the most basic thing to remember is to *keep calm*. This may mean the difference between life and death. In many disasters persons have been killed or injured needlessly because they took thoughtless actions when they should have done another thing altogether. The guidance on the following pages offers a common sense approach to actions to be taken during warnings, when stocking emergency supplies, when preparing shelter and fighting fires, and after the disaster has passed.

### *KNOW ABOUT WARNING*

Learn your community's warning signals. In most communities having outdoor warning systems, the Attack Warning is a wavering sound on the sirens, or a series of short blasts on whistles, horns, or other devices. This signal will be used only to warn of an attack against the United States. Many communities also are using an Attention or Alert Signal, usually a 3 to 5 minute steady blast to get the attention of their people in a time of threatened or impending peacetime emergency. In most places, the Attention or Alert Signal means that people should turn on their radio or television sets to hear important emergency information being broadcast. You should find out now, before any emergency occurs, what warning signals are being used in your community, what they sound like, what they mean, and what actions you should take when you hear them.

If you should hear the attack warning signal, go immediately to a public fallout shelter, or to your home fallout shelter. Public shelters are marked in a standard manner all over the country. When you get to the shelter, wherever it is, turn on your radio and listen for official information. Then carefully follow whatever instructions are given. If you should hear the attention or alert signal, turn on your radio or television and follow the instructions being broadcast. Whichever signal is sounding, do not use the telephone to obtain further information and advice about the emergency. Depend on the broadcast system, as telephone lines will be needed for official calls, so keep them open. Again, know what signals are being used in your community, and what to do when you hear them.

### *FALLOUT SHELTERS*

Learn the locations of the public fallout shelters that your local government wants you to go to in time of an attack or natural disaster. Make sure you and your family know the shelters nearest to home, school, and work. If

there is no shelter near your home, you may want to consider preparing either a permanent or preplanned family shelter at home.

**Identifying a Public Shelter.** Most communities have marked the buildings and other structures which have been designated as disaster shelters with the standard fallout shelter signs. This yellow and black shelter sign will be seen on larger buildings, small sturdier structures, subways, tunnels, mines, and other facilities. Because an attack or storm could come at any time of the day or night, you should find out *now* the locations of those public shelters designated for your use. If no designations have yet been made in your local area, scout out the facilities which might be used for shelter in neighborhoods where you spend a considerable amount of time. Remember what has been said about radiation fallout protection, and what will be said about preparing a home fallout shelter, and look for structures which offer the overall protection you will need for all types of hazards, from nuclear attacks to winter storms.

**Shelter Requirements.** Whether looking for a shelter in a public building, or considering construction of a home shelter, you should be aware of the basic characterisitcs which make an area suitable for a shelter. If it is to serve as a fallout shelter to protect you from radioactive material, as well as a protective area in times of natural disasters, the shelter must have sufficient shielding material to absorb and deflect radioactive gamma rays. The walls and ceiling of a basement provide some shielding, but not enough unless they are very thick concrete. The thicker and denser the shielding material is, the more protection there is afforded shelter occupants. For comparative purposes, four inches of concrete would provide the same shielding density as:

5-6 inches of bricks.
6 inches of sand or gravel, or 7 inches of earth (may be packed into bags, boxes, or other containers for ease of handling).
8 inches of hollow concrete blocks (6 inches when filled with sand).
10 inches of water.
14 inches of books or magazines.
18 inches of wood.

Thinking carfully of these requirements, it is obvious that the basements of some homes and schools are usable as fallout shelters as they now stand, without any alterations or changes—especially if the building has two or more stories, and its basement is below ground level.

**Constructing a Home Shelter.** If one corner, or more, of your home basement is below ground level, that is the best place to prepare a permanent shelter area. Plans for such an area can be obtained from your local civil defense office, or by writing to "Civil Defense, Army Publications Center, 2800 Eastern Blvd., Baltimore, Md. 21220." A basement area can be altered to serve as a shelter without changing its appearance or interfering with its normal use. Overhead protection is obtained by screwing plywood sheets to the ceiling joists, and filling the space between the joists with bricks or concrete blocks. Extra support may have to be provided for the increased weight. If 12 inches or more of your basement wall is above ground you will need to add additional walls inside the existing basement wall. Plan the entranceway so that is does not face an exposed exterior basement wall.

**Preparing a Preplanned Basement Shelter.** You can arrange to assemble a preplanned home shelter by gathering together material needed to quickly assemble a shelter, and storing that material in or near your home. Plans

for this type for shelter are also available from Civil Defense offices. One method favored is to build a snack bar of bricks or concrete blocks in the best (deepest) corner of your basement. A strong false ceiling is constructed in such a manner that it can be easily lowered to rest on the snack bar counter, providing a roof for your shelter when covered with a thick layer of bricks or concrete blocks. A tilt-up storage unit is another method of setting up a preplanned home shelter. Hinge the top of the compartmented unit to the wall, and in normal periods it can serve as a bookcase or pantry shelving. In a time of emergency the storage unit can be tilted so that the bottom of it rests on a wall of bricks or concrete blocks that you have stored nearby. Other bricks should then be placed in the storage unit's compartments, to provide an overhead shield. It may be that you only need to cover the portion of the basement which is above ground with shielding materials, and cover the basement windows, to make the area secure.

**Improvising an Emergency Shelter.** If you do not have a basement or storm cellar, or do not choose to build a prepared or preplanned shelter in the basement or cellar, you might be able to improvise a shelter in the crawl space under the house, outside in the yard, on the first floor of your house, or under a boat. Such a space will not provide as much protection as a permanent or preplanned shelter, but any protection is better than none. To improvise a shelter you can use the shielding materials previously mentioned, plus heavy doors, or one of the following types of items:

Dressers and chests, or trunks or boxes, filled with sand or earth.
Large appliances.
Tables, bookcases, or stacks of flagstones, books, magazines, firewood or lumber.

You can get under the table, or doors standing on top of furniture or appliances, then cover the top and walls of this space with a thick layer of shielding material. If you decide to utilize the crawl space under your house for shelter, get in the center of the house, away from outside foundation walls, and stack shielding material on top of and around the space selected. You can improvise a shelter in your yard with one of two methods. First, you may elect to dig an "L" shaped trench and cover it with lumber or house doors, with earth piled one to two feet high on the lumber. The long side of the trench is your shelter area, and the short portion of the "L" serves as an entranceway and provides greater shielding. A second method is to dig a shallow ditch, six inches deep and six inches wide, parallel to and four feet from the outside wall of your house. Remove the heaviest doors from your house and place their bottoms in the ditch, leaning the tops of the doors against the side of the house. Then pile 12 to 18 inches of sand or dirt on top of the doors, and stack or pile shielding material at the sides of the doors and on the other side of the house wall. An overturned boat, covered with shielding material, may also serve as an improvised shelter.

Whatever type of fallout shelter you utilize, do not leave it until told by competent authority that it is safe. When the winds have subsided, or fallout particles have stopped falling, public broadcasts will inform people that it is safe to leave shelter areas. Wait until this "all clear" advice is passed before risking exposure. Too early departure from a shelter has cost lives in hurricanes and tornadoes, and it could be more deadly after a nuclear attack.

### *SUPPLIES FOR SHELTERS*

If you plan to go to a public fallout shelter, find out now whether or not it

has emergency supplies, or whether you will need to carry supplies with you. If you ever expect to use a home shelter, stock your home with the supplies and equipment needed for emergency situations, sufficient to last two weeks. There are many requirements for shelter supplies, but the basic list will include: water, food, sanitation supplies, medical items, cooking and eating utensils, clothing and bedding, firefighting equipment and general tools.

**Water.** This is even more important than food. Enough water should be available to give each person at least one quart per day for 14 days. Store the water is plastic containers, or in bottles or cans, all with tight stoppers. Part of your water supply might be "trapped" water in the pipes of your home plumbing system, and part of it might be in the form of bottled or canned beverages, fruit or vegetable juices, or milk. A water-purifying agent (either water-purifying tablets, 2 percent tincture of iodine, or a liquid chlorine household bleach) should also be stored, in case you need to purify any cloudy or "suspicious" water that may contain bacteria.

**Food.** Enough food should be an hand to feed all shelter occupants for 14 days, including special foods needed by infants, elderly persons, and those on limited diets. Most people in a shelter can get along on about half as much as usual, because they are not going to be physically active. If possible store canned or sealed-package foods, preferably those not requiring refrigeration or cooking. These foods should be replaced periodically, that is, rotated to prevent age spoilage. Following are some suggested replacement periods, in months, for types of food suitable to store for emergency use:

a. Milk, either evaporated, or nonfat dry or whole dry milk (in metal container)—6 months.
b. Canned meat and poultry—18 months.
c. Canned fish—12 months.
d. Mixtures of meats, vegetables, and cereal products—18 months.
e. Condensed meat and vegetable soups—8 months.
f. Canned berries, sour cherries, citrus fruit juices—6 months.
g. Other canned fruits and fruit juices—18 months.
h. Dried fruit in a metal container, and canned tomatoes and sauerkraut—6 months.
i. Other canned vegetables, dry beans and dry peas—18 months.
j. Ready-to-eat cereals, in metal container—12 months, in original paper package—1 month.
k. Uncooked cereal, in metal container—24 months, in original paper package—12 months.
l. Hydrogenated fats and vegatable oil—12 months.
m. Sugar and salt—indefinitely.
n. Hard candy and gum—18 months.
o. Canned nuts and instant puddings —12 months.
p. Coffee, tea, instant cocoa—18 months.
q. Dry cream and bouillon products—12 months.
r. Flavored beverage products and spices such as pepper—24 months.
s. Soda and baking powder—12 months.

**Sanitation Supplies.** Since you may not be able to use your regular bathroom during a period of emergency, you should keep on hand these supplies: a metal container with a tight fitting lid to use as an emergency toilet; one or two garbage cans with covers for human wastes and garbage; plastic bags to line the toilet container; disinfectant; toilet paper; soap; wash cloths and towels, and a pail or basin.

**Medicines, First Aid Supplies, and Baby Supplies.** This should include any medicines being regulary taken, or likely to be needed, by family members. First aid supplies should include all those items found in a good first aid kit (bandages, antiseptics, etc.), plus all the items normally kept in a well-stocked home medicine chest (aspirin, thermometer, petroleum jelly, etc.). A good first aid handbook is also recommended. Families with babies should keep on hand a two week supply of items needed by infants, such as baby milk or formula, disposable diapers, bottles and nipples, rubber sheeting, and necessary bedding and clothing.

**Cooking and Eating Utensils.** Emergency supplies should include pots, pans, knives, forks, spoons, plates, cups, napkins, paper towels, measuring cup, bottle opener and can opener, and a pocket knife. If possible, disposable items should be stored. A heat source also might be helpful, such as an electric hotplate for use when power is available, and a camp stove or canned heat stove for use when the power is off. Be certain to plan sufficient ventilation when using the stove.

**Clothing and Bedding.** Several changes of clean clothing, especially undergarments and socks, should be ready for use in the shelter, in case there is not enough water for washing. Blankets will be a necessity in a shelter, and shelter occupants can be more comfortable with pillows, sheets, and air mattresses or sleeping bags.

**Fire Fighting Equipment and Other Tools.** Simple fire fighting tools, and the knowledge of how to use them, may be very useful. A hand-pumped water fire extinguisher, five gallon size, is recommended. Chemical extinguishers are not good to use in a small space because of the danger of fumes. Other useful fire equipment includes buckets filled with sand, a ladder, and a garden hose. Miscellaneous equipment which is essential is a battery powered radio and a flashlight or lantern. A broom, shovel, axe, rope, simple tools, nails and screws would also be very useful.

**Miscellaneous Items.** In addition to such practical items as matches, candles, and civil defense instructions, some personal convenience items can be stored if space permits. These might include reading and writing materials, games and hobby materials, sewing kit, and toiletries such as toothbrushes, cosmetics, and shaving supplies. In an area subject to floods or hurricanes, you might want to buy lumber to board up windows and doors, and plastic sheeting or tarpaulins to protect your furniture.

*CARE AND USE OF SUPPLIES*

In a shelter water and food supplies and necessary sanitation measures must be properly managed and controlled, to preserve the supplies and to make all occupants as comfortable as possible. Consumables will have to be kept clean, and may have to be rationed. Health and well being must be maintained for all persons.

**Water.** The average person in a shelter would need at least one quart of water or other liquids per day to drink, but more would be useful, to allow for washing. In addition to water you've stored in containers, there is usually other drinkable liquids in most homes, such as:

a. Liquids normally found in the kitchen, as ice cubes, milk and soft drinks, fruit and vegetable juices.
b. 20 to 60 gallons of water in the hot tank.
c. Water in flush tanks (not the bowls) of home toilets.
d. Water trapped in the pipes in your house. To release this water, let

air in the plumbing by opening at the highest point in the house, and then draw water from the lowest faucet in the house.

**Purifying Water.** If necessary, "suspicious" water, such as cloudy water from regular faucets or perhaps some muddy water from a nearby stream or pond, can be used after is has been purified. To purify the water, first strain it through a paper towel or several thicknesses of clean cloth, to remove dirt and fallout particles, if any. Or else let the water settle in a container for 24 hours, by which time any solid particles will have sunk to the bottom. A handful of clay soil in each gallon of water would help this settling process. After the solid particles have been removed, boil the water if possible for 3 to 5 minutes, or add a water purifying agent to it. Water purifying tablets are available at any drugstore, or you may use two percent tincture of iodine; liquid chlorine household bleach may also be used, provided the label says that it contains hypochlorite as its only active ingredient. For each gallon of water, use four water purifying tablets, or 12 drops of tincture of iodine, or 8 drops of liquid chlorine bleach. If the water is cloudy, these amounts should be doubled. There is no need to worry about drinking radioactive particles in water, for they will sink quickly to the bottom of a container or stream, and very few if any will dissolve in the water.

**Food Supplies.** Food may have to be rationed carefully to make it last for at least a two week period. Except for small children and pregnant women, half the normal intake should be adequate. To avoid attracting vermin, and to avoid illness, you must be very sanitary in the storing, handling, and eating of all foods. Be sure to: keep food in covered containers, keep cooking and eating utensils clean, and keep all garbage in a tightly closed container, or dispose of it outside when it is safe to go outside. Bury garbage if possible, but avoid letting it accumulate inside the shelter, both for fire and sanitation reasons.

**Emergency Toilet Facilities.** In many home shelters, people would have to use emergency toilets until it was safe to leave the shelter for brief periods of time. An emergency toilet, consisting of a watertight container with a snug fitting cover can be made from a garbage pail, or a bucket. If the toilet is small, you may need a large covered container into which you can empty the toilet contents for later disposal. Both containers should be lined with plastic bags. The emergency container may be fitted with a seat of some sort, especially for children and elderly persons. After each use, a person should pour or sprinkle into the toilet a small amount of regular houshold disinfectant, such as cerosol or chlorine bleach, to keep down odors and germs. For privacy, the toilet could be screened from view. When the toilet container needs to be emptied, and it is safe to go outside, the contents should be buried in a hole one to two feet deep, to prevent spread of disease by rats and insects. If regular home toilets are not usable, and it is safe to go outside, construct an outside toilet.

## *FIRE PROTECTION AND FIRE FIGHTING*

Fire, always a danger, would be even more of a problem during a nuclear attack or a natural disaster, because the normal service of the fire department might not be available to you. It is natural, too, that the risk of fire is much greater during an emergency period.

**Fire Hazards.** Normal fire prevention rules are of special importance in an emergency. They include familiar common sense precautions such as not

allowing trash to accumulate, especially near heat sources; exercising extreme caution in the use of flammable fluids such as gasoline, naphtha, etc., storage of such fluids outdoors when possible; care in the use of electricity; repairing of faulty wiring and avoiding overloaded circuits; and repair of faulty heating systems. In a nuclear emergency you will want to keep some of the intense heat from nuclear explosions from entering your house by closing your doors, windows, venetion blinds, window shades and drapes.

**Fire Fighting.** If a fire does occur, your home might be saved if you know how to fight fires, and have on hand some basic firefighting tools. You can, for instance, fill bathtubs, basins, buckets and other containers with water for firefighting use. Tools stored should include a garden hose, a ladder, containers filled with sand and with water, and a fire extinuisher. Keep in mind that vaporizing liquid types of fire extinguishers can produce dangerous fumes when used in small enclosed spaces. Remember the three basic ways to put out a fire: (1) Take away its fuel, (2) Take away its air (smother it), (3) Cool it with water or other fire extinguisher chemicals. You might be able to get the burning material out of the house, by carrying it out or throwing it out a door or window. You can put out fire with water, sand, earth, or chemicals, or you can smother the fire with a rug or blanket, preferably wet. Special types of fires require special methods. If you have an electrical fire, shut off the electricity before attempting to extinguish the fire. If you can't turn off the electricity, don't use water on an electrical fire. If you are faced with an oil or grease fire, shut off the supply of whatever is burning. Then smother the flames with sand, dirt, rugs, or other heavy materials. Don't use water. If it is a gas fire, shut off the gas supply, then use water, sand, or earth to put out whatever is burning.

### *EMERGENCY CARE OF THE SICK AND INJURED*

In any disaster many people are likely to be hurt, and they will have to help each other. In a public fallout shelter you will probably have available a basic medical kit, and one of the occupants might be a doctor, nurse, or person trained in first aid. In a home shelter, you will have only what medical materials you have in the house, and you will have to depend on your own knowledge of emergency medical care. Courses in first aid are available for both adults and teenagers in many communities, and it would be wise for several members of the family to take such a course.

**General Rules for Medical Emergencies.** First of all, do no harm. It is possible for well-meaning, but untrained, persons to worsen the injury or illness in their attempts to help. Get competent medical assistance, or someone who is well trained in first aid, if possible. If you must assist yourself, be careful. Look first for stoppage of breathing and serious bleeding, for these life-threatening conditions demand immediate treatment. Prevent shock, or treat it. Shock alone can kill under some conditions. Don't move the patient immediately, unless there is danger of his receiving further injury where he is. Stop the bleeding; restore breathing, and splint any suspected broken bones before moving him. Keep calm, and reassure the patient; keep him comfortably warm, and lying down, but don't apply heat. Never attempt to give him anything to drink, until you are certain he is able to swallow, and does not have an abdominal injury.

**Medical Treatment.** The treatment of most injuries is fairly simple, and is well covered in first aid courses and

books which are readily available. The effective use of artificial respiration, bandages and tourniquets, and splints for broken bones is commonly known. Remember to treat all seriously injured persons for shock, although they appear to be alert and normal. The best treatment for most burns is no treatment; do not cover the burn, and do not apply anything to it. If exposed to nuclear radiation, caused by nuclear fallout, people will become ill. There is no medicine for the prevention or treatment of radiation sickness, but fortunately, it is not contagious. Early symptoms of the disease are lack of appetite, nausea, vomiting, fatigue, weakness and headache. Later, more advanced symptoms are sore mouth, loss of hair, bleeding gums, bleeding under the skin, and diarrhea. But these same symptoms can be caused by other diseases, and not everyone with radiation sickness will show these symptoms. You can do a little for a person with radiation sickness. Always keep him lying down, resting and comfortable. Use aspirin for headache, motion sickness tablets for nausea, and a salt water mouthwash for bleeding gums and sore mouth. When the patient is vomiting or has diarrhea, he should drink several glasses of a salt and soda solution (one teaspoonful of salt and one-half teaspoonful of baking soda to one quart of cool water), plus boullion or fruit juices. If available, a mixture of kaolin and pectine can be given for diarrhea. Finally, and probably most important, get competent medical aid for the ill or injured person as soon as possible.

*AFTER A DISASTER*

When the storm has passed, or the flood subsided, or the nuclear attack is ended, there is still danger. Some of the items to watch for when returning to home or school after a disaster are listed below.

Be extremely *cautious* in entering or working in buildings damaged by the disaster, as they may collapse without warning, or there may be gas leaks or electrical short circuits.

Avoid taking any *heat source;* whether lantern, torch, or lighted cigarette; into flooded or damaged buildings, since there may be leaking gas lines or flammable material present.

*Stay away* from fallen or damaged electrical lines, and avoid a fatal shock.

Check for *leaking gas* in the building. Check by smell; don't use matches or candles. If you do smell gas—turn off the main gas valve at the meter, open all doors and windows, leave the house, notify the gas company, police, or fire department, and don't re-enter the house until you are told it is safe to do so.

If any of your electrical *appliances are wet,* first turn off the main power switch in your house, then unplug the appliance, dry it out, reconnect it, and turn the power switch back on. But do not touch the power switch or the appliance if you are wet, or standing in water.

Carefully inspect your *food and water* supplies before using them. Foods requiring refrigeration may be spoiled if the power has been off for some time, and food and water contaminated with flood waters is probably unsafe.

Stay away from *disaster areas,* as sightseeing could interfere with first aid or rescue work, and may be dangerous.

*Contact* relatives—by letter, telegraph, or telephone—after the emergency is over so that they will know you are safe. Otherwise, local authorities may waste time locating you. Or, if you have evacuated to another area for safety, they may not be able to find you.

Do not pass on *rumors* or exaggerated reports of damage.

Follow the *advice* and recommendations of your local government regard-

*Returning to an area such as the flooded street above can be as hazardous as staying in the house during the storm. Minnesota floods in 1965 did extensive damage to these homes and many other areas, destroying shelter, food, and essential water supplies.*

ing things to do to help yourself and your community recover from the emergency.

## *A CHECKLIST OF EMERGENCY ACTIONS*

As a form of summary, the checklist which follows will serve to review the pertinent points of this chapter, and further, it will assist you in knowing what to do, and when, in case of an actual emergency in your own community.

*Study*—your local emergency action plan, and determine the specific actions you and members of your family are expected to take.

*Understand*—nuclear attack hazards. Remember that the most dangerous period for radiation fallout is the first 24 hours after the attack, but you may have to stay in a shelter as long as two weeks. You have to actually receive the rays from radioactive particles personally; a person with radiation sickness cannot infect another person.

*Know*—the attack warning signal—a three to five minute wavering sound, or series of short blasts on horns or whistles. When warned of an emergency get further information from radio or television; don't tie up the telephone.

*Locate*—the public fallout shelter nearest your home and school. Good shelters can be prepared in homes with basements.

*Improvise*—protection if no prepared shelter is available. Basements below ground level, and storm cellars, offer the best protection. Radiation shielding material must be heavy and dense.

*Prepare*—emergency supplies. Especially important are water, food, and special medicine required by a family member.

*Conserve*—emergency supplies, and maintain sanitation measures.

*Reduce*—fire hazards.

*Learn*—the basics of emergency medical care. Know how to restore breathing, stop bleeding, and treat shock, broken bones, and burns.

*Follow*—official instructions from local authorities.

CHAPTER 13

# SURVIVAL

## *THE WILL TO LIVE*

To survive is simply to live, to continue to exist. In our normal lives and activities we consider merely existing as bad; man should be able to do more with his life than just sustain existence. But in an emergency situation, where the usual comforts and conveniences of our modern world are taken away, survival can be a very real challenge, requiring the utmost effort and full concentration. We seldom think of having to fight for life, because we take for granted the basic necessities for life which we all have in abundance. Food, water, shelter, and health are provided to most of us with no effort on our part in our daily lives, but it is possible that a time could come when these items are not only not given to us automatically, but the very basic essentials to maintain life appear not to be available at all. There are many examples of persons who least expected any danger finding themselves suddenly placed in a position of fighting nature to stay alive —the vacationer whose airliner is forced to land in an uninhabited area; shipwreck survivors who spend days or weeks on a raft, or ashore on some barren island; travelers in desert or mountains whose vehicle is disabled; hikers who become lost in a wilderness area—almost daily someone is stranded somewhere in the world where he has to devote his total attention to merely staying alive. It has been repeatedly proven that anyone can survive, almost anywhere, under the very worst of conditions, if he has sufficient desire, some knowledge, and does not panic.

Of the elements necessary for survival anywhere, nothing is more important than *DESIRE*, an attitude of perseverance which causes a person to do whatever is required in order to maintain life under the most trying circumstances. Prisoners of war, accident victims, and lost persons have demonstrated over and over that the individual who wants to live, can live, whereas the person who just gives up probably won't make it even if he is given every possible chance. In this chapter we'll be talking about the primary elements of surviving on land—whether desert, mountain, or tropics—in the water—at sea or in a lake or stream—and in any combination of these types of areas. Keep in mind that at no time are attitude and desire more important than when your job is to survive, for only you can provide that will to live which can enable you to endure any hardship and stay alive. Several years ago a man named Kenneth Cooke was one of two survivors of a party of fourteen people who began an ordeal of forty-nine days at sea on an open raft. Mr. Cooke survived because he had a strong desire to live. Even though the group had enough food and water for a meal and a drink each day, twelve died, partly from exposure, partly from drinking sea water, and partly from weakened morale.

Whatever the terrain, under any extremes of temperature or weather, with or without any equipment, there

are a few basic rules to remember which can be summarized by the word SURVIVAL. These hints can be applied to every survival situation, and are easy to remember.

S—size up the situation. Look around you and determine what your own personal condition is, and what you have to work with, plus what problems face you in that particular time and place.

U—undue haste makes waste. This old adage was never more true than it is in a survival situation. When you lack the bare necessities of life, you cannot afford to waste even the most insignificant item, and any wasted energy might just make the difference in living and dying.

R—remember where you are. Geographically and physically locate yourself as best as you can. Rescue may very well depend on how well you know your location, so make every effort to determine exactly where you are at that moment, and all of the time until you find help or help finds you.

V—vanquish fear and panic. Only your calm thinking and practical application of common sense will save you. Hysteria has killed others; don't let it happen to you.

I—improvise. When some simple item is required, make do without it only when you have proved by trying that you can't manufacture the item yourself from something else, or substitute another item to do the job.

V—value living. Again remember that attitude, the will to live, is essential to living. Keep that thought foremost in your mind through every problem.

A—act like the natives. Those people who spend their lives in that area have learned to accept the place, and to make the land provide their needs, because they work with it. Remember what you have heard, read, or seen on television or in the movies about natives of the area, and copy what to do and when to do it. Eskimos, desert nomads, and Pacific island people know their world and how to live in it; live like them, and survive.

L—learn basic skills. You can learn a few simple skills now, and recall them when the need arises. Building a fire, purifying water, keeping the body clean—these are all simple things to do in your home environment, but in a survival environment they may be much more difficult, and they will certainly be much more important.

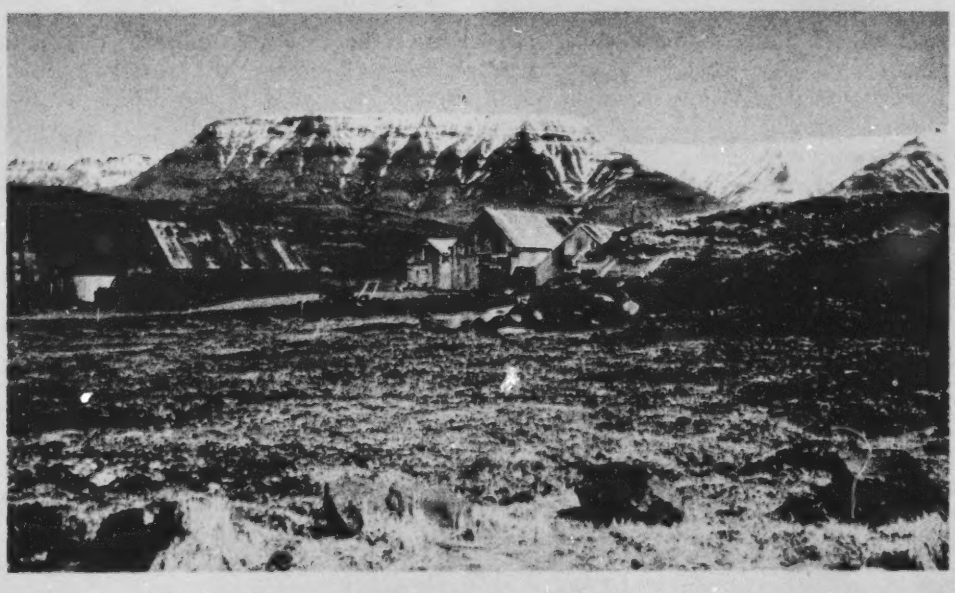
After attitude and a desire to live, probably the next most important element of survival is physical conditioning. We can't all be super atheletes, with enormous strength and powers of endurance, but we can attain some state of good physical condition, and take every step possible to maintain the best possible condition while working to survive. Whether you live or die is going to depend on you alone in a survival situation, and you'll have to do everything for yourself, so there is a very obvious need to keep your machine, your body, in the best possible condition. Wherever you find yourself trying to survive—in desert dunes or a raft at sea, on a mountain top, arctic ice floe or tropic jungle—the labor required to sustain life is going to tax you to the extreme. Extremes of heat and cold, desert winds, and tropic flood rains are going to cause your body to have to exert a maximum amout of energy to do the simplest things. A state of good physical readiness at the beginning of such an ordeal can ease the effort required and serve you usefully in every way. In our daily lives good conditioning serves to make us healthier, happier, better adjusted, and neater in appearance. In a survival condition good physical condition can make the difference in determining if you live, not just how well you live.

Once you're stranded it is too late to try to improve your physical condition-

ing level; now your job is to maintain your strength and endurance. Conserving your strength is dependent on how well you practice one fundamental rule of survival: TAKE IT EASY. Whether swimming to shore, walking across the mountains, or just staying alive in one place, do everything slowly, carefully, with frequent stops for rest. Sleep and rest to survive. Whether stalking an animal for food or walking to a river for water, your chances for successful completion of the task are 100% greater if you plan every action to be slow, steady, and sure. Don't ever strain, or hurry; give your body a chance to keep up with the demands you have to place on it. Rest as often as possible, and sleep as much as you can. Your primary duty is survival, not speed; so set yourself a sure pace that will insure a continuation of the pace. Plan every expenditure of energy as carefully as you plan the expenditure of your money in the normal world. Wasting your money can only make you uncomfortable; failing to conserve your energy can possibly cause you to be one of the unfortunate ones who did not survive.

## *ESSENTIAL ELEMENTS FOR SURVIVAL IN ANY ENVIRONMENT*

There are a few basic things we all must have to survive in any part of the world. First we'll consider the requirements for survival anywhere, and then we'll discuss some of the peculiarities of attaining these essential elements of life in special situations where you must face extremes of weather or terrain. Water and food, fire and shelter, maintenance of direction and physical health, some method of signaling to a possible rescuer—these are requirements common to any survival situation. Not only are these basic needs the same for every area, but the methods used to achieve the needs are the same or similar in most areas. Although your fuel, for example, might be different in the north from that in the swamps of a



*Survival in desolate areas such as this tundra area of Iceland will require every bit of thought, ingenuity, and physical strength you can muster. Preparedness may be the key to survival when faced with this sort of terrain.*

tropic climate, your need for that fire is just the same, so anything you learn about firebuilding is going to be useful anywhere. Of course the same idea applies to all the basic needs; a trick that works in one place might also work in a different spot, or it may be modified to achieve the same result.

**Water.** Man can live a long time without food; there are known cases of persons surviving in excess of thirty days without eating anything at all. There are two good examples of men surviving without any food for a long period of time which illustrate the relative unimportance of eating, if your physical activity is reduced. John Brown, a Scottish miner, was buried by a mine cave-in in 1835. He was rescued 23 days after the accident, alive after all those days spent entirely without food. And in 1953 Ensio Tiira, a Finn, survived 32 days on a life raft; for the last 19 days he ate nothing at all, drinking only small amounts of rainwater. But no one can survive for very long without water. The amount of water needed will vary with the climate and the amount of physical activity, but you still must have some liquid intake every day. In a cold climate you need less water; when you don't eat you don't require as much fluid; the less you exert yourself, the less water your body will require, but you still must have some water every day; even in cold weather with no food and no movement you will have to have something to drink; a minimum of a pint a day should be planned. When the temperature is over 100 degrees and you are doing heavy work, you may require as much as ten to twelve quarts of drinking water each 24-hour period.

Realizing that water is a very basic requirement in any circumstance, one of your first tasks must be to preserve whatever water you have with you when the survival period begins. Be careful of any accident which would cause you to lose precious water—carry the water in a container which won't break; seal the water bottle tightly to prevent spillage and evaporation; do not completely fill the container in freezing weather, but leave some room for expansion when the water freezes, so not one drop of water will be lost. But these are all common sense precautions which only serve to help you keep any pure water you might have with you; much more important are potential sources of water for drinking which can be found in the environment where you are working to survive.

Before mentioning the various places water might be found, it is important to mention two important rules: (1) Purify all water unless you are certain that there is no need; when in doubt, purify the water either by boiling or by using water purification tablets or iodine. (2) NEVER drink urine, sea water, or liquor. The high salt content and poisons in the body wastes carried by urine will make you violently ill very quickly. Sea water is much too salty to drink, no matter how thirsty you might be. If you drink much of it, it will cause vomiting, and you'll lose more fluid than you take in. Liquor is neither an effective snakebite remedy, nor does it serve to keep you warm in a cold place. It does cause the body metabolism to require even more water, so it not only does you no good as a substitute for water, it actually harms you when in a survival situation.

Of course your need for water will vary with the location in the world, with the temperature, and with your level of activity, but following are some general ideas about finding water when it isn't readily available. Remember too that if you are fortunate enough to find yourself beside a river or lake the water is safe to drink only after you have practiced the appropriate procedure—boiling

or treatment. Some source of water can be found almost everywhere, even in the desert. It may be on the earth's surface, or underground, or in the air, but usually a form of water is available. First look for water on the surface—rivers, lakes, streams, springs, wells, etc.. The easiest way to locate a water source is to look for green vegetation, for plants need water as much as you do. If you find a stream bed which is dry, search for muddy spots where you might dig a hole which will slowly fill with water seepage. This muddy water can be filtered through a cloth or sand, then purified. In rocky soil look for limestone, or lava rock, or sandstone. Because these types of rocks are easily dissolved or are vary porous, there are likely to be springs or water seepage points in the area.

Continue to watch for signs of water, such as green grass growing among the rocks; digging where there is some positive indication of water will normally yield more water for less effort. In areas of loose soil, watch for signs of water along valley floors, or on the slopes bordering the valley, for in these places the water table is more likely to be near the surface. In sand dune areas, along the sea shore, look in the hollows between the dunes for any visible water, or find a spot where the sand is moist, and dig a hole for water to seep into. Always remember to boil water you find at least one minute, or treat it to make it pure. Remember, too, that animals must drink. Let wild animals or birds lead you to their watering spot; the best time to watch them is at dawn and dusk.

Resides the water to be found on the ground or under it, there is moisture in the air as well. Rain water is an obvious source of water, but less obvious is the morning dew. Early in the morning you can take a cloth, perhaps your shirt or a handkerchief, and mop water off of the surface of an airplane, or your vehicle. Mop dew droplets from smooth rocks, or from broad leaves; continously wring the rag into a cup or bucket, and you may be amazed at how much water you can collect. Snow and ice are certainly good sources of drinking water, but don't ever eat them; melt them first, remembering that it takes 50% more time and fuel to melt snow as it does to melt ice. If you can't build a fire, melt snow in a container set in the sun, out of the wind. Sea ice may even be melted for water; if it is old ice it will not be too salty. Old sea ice has a bluish color, and is brittle; use it for water. New sea ice is milky white in color, and is hard; avoid it as it is too salty to drink. A word of caution—the only pure rainwater or snow is that which you have caught in the air before it is contaminated by touching anything. Water or snow which has run off of leaves or rocks or roofs where birds may have roosted is anything but pure—boil it first!

The plants and animals in your area may lead you to water, as mentioned. They may also provide water in themselves. Moisture can be wrung from the flesh of fish, or from the meat of most animals killed. Many types of plants contain water which they have stored in stems or roots. Sven Hedin, a Swedish scientist and explorer, went five days in 1895 in the desert of China without drinking water. He got his only fluid from the stems and leaves of desert plants. It is important that he walked only at night, resting in shade during the heat of the day. There is much pure water in cactus, in jungle vines, and in bamboo. Water, from vines is usually pure, and getting it is easy if you know how. Always cut a notch high on the vine, then cut the vine at the bottom and let the water drip out. If you don't cut the notch up high first, little water will run out when you cut off the vine at the bottom. As a general rule do not

drink water from any plant that has sap which is milky, or which has a bitter taste. If a plant's sap appears milkly, leave it alone, as a source of either food or water, for it will probably harm you in some way. The only exception to this rule about danger in plants with milky sap is the barrel cactus found in the southwestern United States. If you cut off the top of the cactus, the pulp within the plant can be squeezed to get water. The juice of coconuts can provide you with water. Choose green coconuts when you can; the green ones will contain more juice, and the juice of a ripe coconut is a very strong laxative; do not drink more than three or four cups a day. To get the juice out of the coconut, pierce the eyes of the nut with a knife, or nail, or sharp stick or rock.

Finally, in a desert or hot area you can manufacture your own water, by utilizing the heat of the sun and a "desert water still." To build such a still you need a large sheet of plastic, some sort of container, and if possible, a piece of plastic or rubber tubing. Dig a hole in the ground 15-24" deep and 36-48" across. Place your container in the center of the hole, and loosely cover the hole with the plastic sheet. Weight the sheet in the center with a rock, and run the tubing from the container out to the side of the hole. As the sun heats the air under the sheeting, moisture from the air will condense on the bottom side of the plastic, run down the sloping sides of the plastic, and fall off into the container. Using the tube you can suck water from the container without removing the plastic sheet. If you roughen the bottom side of the plastic, with something like sandpaper, water droplets will adhere to it better. Be careful not to let the sheeting touch the ground anywhere except at the top.

Two points to consider about thirst, and this is important, for the body's craving for water, called thirst, can kill you in two different ways. First, do not let thirst be an indicator of your need for water. Whether in hot or cold weather, drink as much water as you can, or as much as you have. You need it whether or not you are thirsty. And no matter how overpowering your thirst, do not ever drink water which isn't pure. One of the worst hazards to survival is drinking contaminated water, for there are many waterborne diseases which can weaken or kill you in primative conditions. These dangers are dysentery, cholera, and typhoid, among others. Or you can drink into the body blood flukes, or leeches, both of which suck your blood and cause disease.

**Food.** Presumably you have now obtained water in your survival area; your next major need is food. We have said that you can live a month without food, but remember that was on the assumption that you were not doing anything at all, and in the usual survival situation you will need to stay busy to stay alive and to find help. So you do need food for energy, but what can you eat? The answer to that question is—almost anything. For example, there are approximately 300,000 different types of plants on the earth, and of these about 120,000 are edible in whole or in part. Some part of nearly every animal that runs, flies, or swims can be eaten if necessary. Just observe some common sense rules. Remember to cook and chew well everything that you eat, and there is little need for you to go hungry in any part of the world. Watch what animals eat, and that will be all right for you. Avoid anything that tastes bitter when you touch it lightly with the tip of your tongue; avoid plants with a milky sap, and cook everything thoroughly. Do not fry your meat though, your body needs the fat which is wasted in frying. Do not eat any mushrooms, and watch out for poisonous plants like

poison oak, sumac, and ivy. All of these plants and others like them in various parts of the world have small, shiny leaves and small, white berries. As a general rule don't eat the seeds of plants, unless you know what the plant is.

Select the fruit of the plant to eat, or the leaves or stems may be boiled like greens, or the root may be baked. Even some forms of moss may be boiled to make a rich broth. Some forms of many foods common in our daily diets grow wild, and these of course would be the most appealing to us. But don't pass up food just because it is unfamiliar. Birds are found all over the world, over land and sea, and they can provide a valuable food source. Birds may be trapped, snared, netted, knocked down with stick or stone, or caught by hand. A deadfall may be made from logs and rocks and baited with animal meat scraps. Snares can be made with wire, twine, thread from your clothing twisted together for strength, or with lengths of vine or animal gut. Nets can be woven from any of the aforementioned materials, or made from cloth. Sleeping birds, or those hiding in bushes to escape rain, may often be caught with the bare hands. You might even catch a bird as you would a fish, with a piece of line and a baited hook. But remember our first rule for survival —take it easy; do everything slowly and carefully.

The same principles apply to catching animals for food as we stated for birds. Use much the same methods, and take it easy. Locate your trap, snare or pit where animals go—on game trails, near water holes, or near obvious animal lairs. Adjust the net or trap to the size of the animal being hunted, and try to kill the animal quickly. Few animals are naturally dangerous; nearly all animals will try to avoid you if they can, but if cornered any animal may be dangerous. Keep in mind when cooking the meat from animals you've killed that the fat contains much in the way of carbohydrates and vitamins that your body needs, so eat the fat meat as well as the lean.

Again the same basic rule applies to fishing as to all other actions in a survival situation—take your time. The best time for fishing, and for hunting, is at dusk and at dawn, or near these times. Fish may be caught with a hook, a spear, a net, or a trap. If you don't have regular fish hooks, make a hook from a safety pin or a nail or any other piece of metal. Carve a hook from a piece of wood if you must, or make a hook for a large fish by tying the blade of a folding knife one quarter open, securing the knife carefully so that it isn't lost in the water or pulled off by the fish. In 1942 a Chinese steward from a passenger ship survived 133 days on a raft. The man, named Poon Lim, had food on the raft for the first 50 days; the remainder of the time he ate only fish caught with a bent nail he had taken from the wood of the raft. Another hook substitute is the skewer hook. It is very easy to make, and most effective. Simply cut a hole in the center of a thin piece of wood or metal; run a cord or wire through the hole and secure it with a knot on one side. Move the hook so that it runs down the line lengthwise, and bury the skewer hook in some sort of bait, a meat scrap or ball of dough. When the fish swallows the bait, and the line is sharply pulled, the skewer hook will turn sideways and stick in the gullet of the fish, which may then be extracted from the water. You can use a shiny coin or other piece of metal to attract the fish to the hook; jiggling, bobbing the bait up and down in the water, as an insect might move up and down, might also be helpful. Shining a light on the water at night may attract fish. This can be done with a torch, a flashlight, or by reflecting

moon light with a mirror, such as your signal mirror. In the daytime the fish may be attracted to shade on the surface of the water; whether in a raft or on a riverbank you can hold a piece of cloth over the water. When you first catch the fish, or any animal, gut it and bleed it as soon as possible. Scale fish, or skin those without scales, and skin small animals. If a fish has soft spots in the flesh, or smells bad (other than the normal fishy odor), it is best not to eat it. Don't ever tie the fishing line to your body; a big fish could pull you into the water. Do not eat intestines or other organs, including the liver which might have too high a vitamin A concentration. Eat only the fat and lean flesh, the muscle.

You may even eat some insects, and they are in fact considered a delicacy in some parts of the world. Ants and grasshoppers are filled with vitamins and are not at all harmful. Still other valuable food sources are snakes and lizards. There is only one poisonous lizard, the gila monster of Mexico and the southern parts of America's western deserts, and there are many more harmless snakes than there are poisonous types. Avoid being bitten by any type of snake, and cut the heads off of any you might catch, but skin and cook any you can get. The best method for catching a snake is to cut a long, forked stick to use in pinning the snake to the ground while you kill him. Place the stick's forked end just behind the head. In the water a snake may be snared with a noose made from wire or cord; again it is best to catch him just behind the head so you may avoid his fangs.

**Fire.** Since the first caveman discovered the art of firemaking, fire has become a necessity in our lives. In the survival situation a fire serves many purposes besides providing heat. That small blaze you work so hard to keep going is essential for cooking, for signalling, for heat, for drying wet clothing, and most importantly, for water purification. Your fire may be in a pit, in a stove, or between two rocks; it may be fueled by wood, oil, or dried manure, but it is going to become a helper like no other tool you have. As you may have discovered in front of a fireplace at home, or around a campfire on a picnic or hike, a fire makes everything more cheerful, and this increased morale factor is also important to the person struggling for survival. Realizing that you must have a fire, you need to consider three points: (1) Where you should build it, (2) how you should start it, and (3) what you can feed it. Let's look at these three items next, in the order named.

Where you build your fire will, of course, depend on where you are and how long you plan to stay there. But in any situation you will need to place the fire near your shelter, and near your water source. If it is too far from your shelter, it is of less value, less convenient, and you can't tend it properly. If the fire is too far from a source of water, you will have a great distance to carry water before you can purify it, and therefore you will waste some precious energy. Once again, the key to survival is to take it easy; plan every move so as to expend the minimum amount of energy. When it is cold or damp you want your fire placed so that it reflects heat on your sleeping place, and even on the desert it is cold at night. If the fire is to be sustained and not waste fuel, it needs to be protected from the wind, and still you must ensure that there is proper ventilation so the fire will burn well, without endangering you with deadly carbon monoxide, which can kill you. Make certain there is constant ventilation. For the fire within a shelter, plan a smoke hole in

the upper portion, and a ventilation hole in the lower portion of your shelter. Build a reflector of stones, or logs, or earth behind the fire to retain the heat and for protection from the wind. If in a forest where fire can spread through dead leaves and other matter on the ground, clean a spot to the bare earth before building a fire. In the snow place something under the fire so that it doesn't sink into the snow or ice and go out. If there is snow or ice on the trees, do not build your fire under a tree, for snow and ice can either fall or drip down and put out the fire. It is really best to build a makeshift stove if you are going to be in one place very long. Stoves can be manufactured from metal containers, rocks, or even from some types of hard wood. A fire in a stove is more efficient and takes less fuel.

Everyone knows that the Indians started their fires by rubbing two sticks together, and the Boy Scouts struck together flint and steel to get that first spark, but there are many other ways to start a fire when you are without matches. With or without matches there are a few basic supplies needed to start and maintain a good fire. The first match, or spark, or friction must be applied to something called "tinder." Tinder is light material which ignites easily and burns with a hot flame. Use paper if you have it, or gauze from your first aid kit, or oil soaked cloth. Shredded tree bark, or punk (that dry crumbly material inside a dead tree or old log) make good tinder. The tinder is the first item to flame, and is used to ignite the kindling for a wood fire, or the wick of an oil stove. Kindling is small sticks or wood shavings which are used to build a sufficient blaze to light larger sticks or logs. Even wet or green wood will burn if it is fed carefully to a hot fire, or to a large blaze of dry kindling.

So now you know what to do if you have a match, but suppose you don't have any matches—what then? If you got to the survival location by vehicle, and you have stayed with your downed airplane or disabled auto, you may be able to get a spark from the vehicle battery, by connecting the positive and negative connections together. Perhaps a fire starting spark can be coaxed out of the plane's magneto or the car's generator, by manually spinning it to produce a spark. Without a vehicle to work with, your next best bet for fire starting is a weapon. Daniel Boone started fires with his flintlock rifle, striking the flint in the hammer against the metal plate fastened to the receiver of the rifle to get a spark for his tinder. You can use your rifle, too, or a pistol or shotgun, but in a different manner from the method of Boone. Pull the bullet out of the cartridge; shake out most of the gunpowder onto a piece of guaze or a rag from your clothing. Stuff the cloth into the cartridge where the bullet was, and fire the weapon; then quickly fan the piece of cloth into a flame, as it will have been ignited by the firing of the primer. If you can find iron pyrites, called "fool's gold," strike two pieces of it together to get sparks. Striking a piece of steel against flint, or other hard rock, will give you a spark to start the fire. If someone in the group has a cigarette lighter, but it is out of fluid, use gasoline for fluid and you have your match substitute. If you have no gasoline, still the lighter will give you sparks to ignite your tinder. When there is sunshine you can concentrate a ray of sun through a piece of glass to obtain a "hot spot" on your tinder. A magnifying glass works best for this method.

All fire starting techniques require much patience, but the use of friction to start a fire is the most tiring method. However, the "rubbing two sticks" idea will work, and there are several variations. Twirling a pointed stick of hard-

wood onto a soft wood surface can work, or you can make a bow with a loose string and twirl the pointed stick within the bow string by sawing the bow back and forth. Finally you can try rubbing a piece of cord or steel cable, very rapidly, within the heart of a split log. Place your tinder on the hottest spot in the wood and puff gently to obtain a flame when the wood is sufficiently hot.

Our first thought when we consider a fire is to use wood for the fuel, but this isn't the only fuel which can be used. Oil from the vehicle, either alone or mixed with gasoline, can be put into a metal or bamboo container with a wick made from cloth, cord, or bark and utilized as a very effective stove. Sand which has been soaked in oil or gas can be burned as fuel. Remember that you never add gasoline to an existing fire, either flames or hot coals; the resulting explosion could end all your survival worries. Dried animal dung makes a good fuel, and produces a very hot fire. Camel or cattle dung is best; many settlers on the western plains of the U.S. had no other form of fuel except the buffalo dung they collected from the grasslands around them. Melted animal fat can be put in a container with a wick and burned in the same way you would burn oil. Once more, use caution with such a stove if it is placed inside your shelter; you must provide sufficient ventilation to avoid carbon monoxide poisoning.

Two final points about wood fires; keep them small and build them carefully. Several small fires in a ring around you provides more effective heating than one large fire; large fires only waste fuel.

*A simple shelter can be built of almost any available material, in any climate, to provide a "home away from home" for the individual who finds himself in a survival situation. This shelter half tent is located in the rough country of upper New York state.*

Cooking, heating, and water boiling can be accomplished with small fires; only a signal fire need be very big. When you stack your wood for the fire, remember that like your body, the fire needs to have ventilation to live. Either stack the wood on the fire in a teepee shape, or criss-cross it like a log cabin, to allow the air into the heart of the fire. Once you have a good bed of coals, you can be less concerned about smothering the fire. At night, in fact, you can preserve your fire for morning by building up a good bed of coals, and then carefully covering the coals with dead ash or a light covering of soil or sand. In the morning place tinder or kindling on the uncovered coals and gentle blow on the kindling until you have a flame. Now—guard that flame!!

**Shelter.** At first thought it may seem that shelter is a relatively minor consideration in a survival situation, but that is not true at all. Whether in the cold or in the heat, in a dry desert, on an icy mountaintop or in a tropic swamp, you will need protection from sun, rain, wind and the other forces of nature which you must live with to survive. The two primary considerations when planning a shelter are: (1) where to put it, and (2) how to build it.

Your location and building material for the shelter will, of course, like everything else, depend on the situation and terrain. In the heat, you need to be in a breeze; when it's cold, you want to be out of the wind. When we speak of a shelter we are talking about more than a roof over your head. That is certainly part of the requirement, but additionally you will probably need to keep your body off the ground, prevent the weather from coming in the sides, and manage to have some comfortable sleeping arrangement. No one is going to grade you on the appearance of this shelter, but the comfort and protection it offers may make the difference in surviving or not. The type of shelter will vary with the materials available; common types are: jungle hammock, thatch hut, parachute teepee, canvas tent, forest leanto, snow igloo, cave, and the cabin of a plane or the disabled auto. If you are in extreme heat or cold, stay out of the airplane, it is not well insulated and will probably be colder and hotter than a shelter you can build. If you have a parachute or other large piece of cloth there are many things you can build. A jungle hammock is strung between two trees, and has a roof. Fold the cloth diagonally for more strength. With a few poles the cloth can become a teepee, an "A" tent, or a leanto. Metal struts from your aircraft may be used instead of wooden poles. On the desert make a sunshade from the cloth, arranging it so the roof is doubled layered, with an inch or so of air space between the two layers for insulation. Never forget to provide proper ventilation for your shelter.

Physically locating your shelter will require some thought. If you are in a dry area, avoid placing the shelter in a dry wash, as a sudden rain upstream could cause a flash flood in your location which would not only endanger the shelter, but your life as well. In the summer you want to hunt a high place, the top of a hill or slope of a mountain, so that you can benefit from the breeze which will be cooling and help keep away the flying insects. In the winter you will look for a valley, or a spot behind a bank, so that you can be protected from the wind. Blowing dust in the desert can do as much harm as a freezing wind, so consider the necessity for a windbreak there as well. Try to build your shelter near a source of fuel, and water, in order that you can preserve energy by having all your needs convenient. If you are in a thickly forested area, plan your shelter for the

center of a clearing, in order that rescuers searching for you might find you more easily by seeing your shelter.

Unless your shelter is a hammock, you need to build a platform to get your body off the ground. A sleeping platform, or floor, in your shelter will protect you from the dampness of the ground, from some snakes and insects, and from the cold or heat. It is 10-20 degrees cooler two inches above the desert sand than it is on the sand. A platform may be built from tree branches, palm fronds, or woven thatch. Make thatch for the roof, floor and platform by weaving together the big, broad leaves of some jungle plants, such as the banana tree, or by using evergreen boughs or palm fronds. On the roof and sides of your shelter make sure that the leaves point toward the ground and overlap each other to provide more waterproofing. Vines or the plant stems of plants can be used to tie the thatch together. If your shelter is an igloo (snow/ice house), your sleeping platform needs to be higher than the entranceway into the igloo, and it can be covered with clothing, parachutes, or animal skins. An igloo is built by cutting blocks of packed snow and stacking them up as a hut. You may want to seek shelter in a cave in the snow, or in a dirt bank, or in rocks. Such shelter is fine, but make certain there is good ventilation, as there must be with any form of shelter.

**Signalling.** Certainly a primary interest to you as a survivor will be having someone find you. It is probable that people will be searching for you, if you took the common sense precaution to tell others that you were going somewhere, and generally where you were going, and anything which you can do to make their search simpler is to your advantage. One of your best signalling devices is the vehicle in which you arrived. If you stay near your aircraft or auto, that wrecked machine is much easier to see than you yourself are. You can mark a message in snow or sand, large enough to be easily seen from the air, by stamping out "SOS" or "HELP." If you have the material, run up a colored flag on a tree from which you've removed all the leaves. Carefully add wet or green leaves, or mud, or oil soaked rags to your fire to make a thick, smudge smoke which can be seen for some distance in the daytime. At night build a large bonfire on top of a bare hill. If you have some fluorescent sea dye which is packed in sea survival kits, put it in the water (sea, lake, or river) or on snow. At night shine a flashlight or shoot flares up and toward the horizon. Sound carries well at night, so you might blow a whistle, or shoot your weapon if you have a large supply of ammunition. Keep in mind that your searchers will probably be in an aircraft, so do everything possible to make yourself and all your belongings as visible as possible from above. If your vehicle or plane is covered with vegetation, mud, or snow, clean it off for better visibility. Naturally you will use your signalling mirror, or the mirror from an auto to focus a beam of light to a would-be rescuer. You can also expose as much glass and metal surface as possible to the sun, so that it might reflect the light and attract attention. Do anything you can to mar the natural appearance of the area around you, in order to assist your searchers.

**Navigation and Travel.** Speaking of rescue causes us to think of traveling to get help, or to reach someplace where you can better signal for help. It's said that the Lord helps those who help themselves, but before you take off in any direction, stop and consider if, when, and where you should go. Remember that the key to survival is "Take

your time." The first step of any action you take will always be: to think what you are about to do. We've already said that your wrecked vehicle is easier to see than you are, so make certain you want to leave it. Besides the fact that it may attract attention, there is much material in it and on it which you can use for signalling, fire, and shelter. If you do decide to leave the vehicle, be certain to leave a note telling anyone who finds the machine where you have gone, when you left, and what your intended destination is. Of course, if you do not have food and water where you are, and there is no way of finding it nearby, you will almost certainly decide to move to another area.

Alright, now you have decided it is wise to move. But if you have any shelter at all don't move during a storm. Traveling in the rain, in blowing dust, or during a blizzard increases the chances for injury, tires you more quickly, and may cause you to become even more lost than before. On the desert you should always travel at night, when it is cooler. By remaining still during the heat of the day you will conserve strength, and require less water. Don't begin your journey when one or more members of the party are injured or ill, and have to be carried, if by waiting a short time they can recover sufficiently to move themselves. But finally, you have selected the best time to start. Now, how do you go?

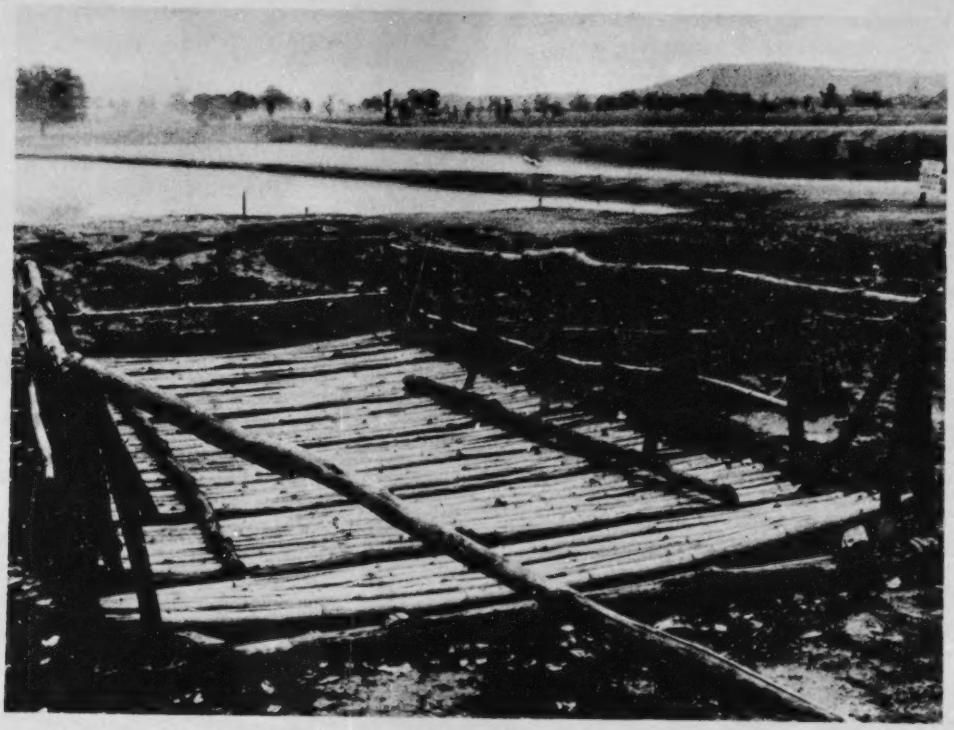
At this time let's consider some important aspects of all means of travel. If you're walking, then your feet become more important to you than they ever have been before. It is, all at once, an absolute necessity to take very good care of those feet, your only means of

*These Marines beginning a forced march with snow-shoes in New Brunswick, Canada well appreciate the difficulties of traveling in barren terrain, whether to accomplish a military mission, or simply to get to some place where survival or rescue is possible.*

transportation. So with that in mind you take every precaution to keep your feet dry, uncut and unbruised, comfortable in well-fitting boots or shoes, and healthy in every way. Change your socks as often as possible; if you can't wash your spare socks, at least shake the dirt out of them and air them when possible. You can warm socks, or get them dry, by putting them inside your shirt or in your sleeping bag at night. Keep loose sand and dirt out of your shoes; blisters come from lumps in shoes. Incidentally, never break a blister; leave it alone to avoid possible infection. You might, if walking in loose sand, want to make leggings from strips of cloth to keep the dirt out of low-top shoes. In the tropics and desert, where there are many crawling insects and lizards, be sure to shake out your boots thoroughly before putting them on. Some men in the past have learned that scorpions like to bed down in a pair of warm shoes. If for some reason you have no shoes, make them. In the desert make sandals from strips of cloth and tire rubber or wood. In a cold climate make boots from canvas, or from seat covers, and use moss, feathers, or grass as socks to pad and insulate the makeshift foot coverings. When you stop walking, air and massage the feet. Be careful not to rub your feet when they are very wet or very cold. Cold or wet skin is delicate, and rubbing it may cause a break which could lead to an infection. Warm or dry the feet by placing them against your legs, or another man's stomach. When walking it is usually wisest to follow a coastline, ridgeline, powerline, or a streambed, downstream. However, in the desert following a dry riverbed may only lead you to a dry lakebed, and not to a larger river or to the coastline. The surest path to find help will be along a powerline, or a traveled road. Always remember, take your time to survive; rest ten minutes for every fifty you walk. And when you stop at night, sleep as much as possible.

Now for a few words of advice about traveling near water. It is seldom best, when walking, to try to cross a lake. Go around it. When you must ford a river or stream, use a raft or improvised bridge if possible. Whether on foot or afloat, choose a spot to cross where the water is shallow and smooth flowing. You want to avoid hard, slippery rocks when you can, and leave from and head for banks that are clear of brush and rocks. Whether walking or floating, cross the river at a 45 degree angle, upstream, so that a swift current will not push you off your path. If you walk or swim across, it might be wise to rig some sort of flotation device for safety. A large log, or cans or bottles or your trousers filled with air will help support you in the water. Now for a few hints on raft building. The logs of a raft can be secured together with rope, cable or vines. If none of these items are available, you might secure the logs together with sticks laid across the logs, top and bottom, tied together tightly at each end, so that the logs of the raft are held in a squeeze by the pressure of the crossing sticks. Still another way to build your raft is to cut inverted notches at each end of each log, and drive triangular shaped sticks into the notches crossing logs. When the sticks are wedged into the notches, they will hold. As the sticks swell when they soak up water, they will become even more tightly wedged into the logs, making the raft still more secure. If you should decide to erect a sail on your raft, or on a liferaft at sea, do not tie the sail too tightly all across the bottom of the sail. A strong gust of wind could overturn the raft if the sail did not break loose in the sudden gust.

Now the only problem remaining is which direction to go. If you have a



*A survival raft can be simple or elaborate, large or small. The raft pictured above is made of the simplest materials, but is large enough to carry a truck across the river.*

map and compass, and you know where you are, then simply use the mapreading experience you've gotten thus far and chart your way to home. Even if you don't have a map and compass, hopefully you will have some idea of where you are, and thus will know a general direction to travel to get help. Finding which direction is which is the very easiest part of survival. There are a number of techniques, for day and night. Of course when we can see the sun we can find our directions in the daytime. At night we may determine approximate directions from the stars. Guiding on the North Star is simple. Simply find the constellation the Big Dipper; the two stars at the end of the bowl of the dipper point to the bright North Star. Any time the sun is bright enough to cast a shadow you can use a straight stick about one meter long to determine direction. First push the stick into the ground where a distinct shadow can be seen, then mark the far tip of the shadow with a twig or stone. Wait 10-15 minutes for the shadow to move, and mark the new position of the shadow tip. Draw a straight line from the first marker to the second marker, extending the line about a foot beyond the second marker. Now stand with the toe of the LEFT foot at the first marker, and the toe of the RIGHT foot at the end of the line you have drawn. YOU ARE NOW FACING *NORTH*. Draw a perpendicular line across the line on which you are standing, and you can locate the other directions from North. Remember that the sun rises in the East and sets in

the West, and the shadow tip moves in the opposite direction. Therefore, the first shadow tip mark is always in the West direction and the second mark is in the East direction, everywhere on the earth.

An ordinary watch can be used to determine approximate North. Just point the hour hand at the sun; in standard time the North-South line is midway between the hour hand and 12 o'clock. Use 1 o'clock in daylight savings time. Determine which end of the line is North by remembering that the sun is in the Eastern part of the sky in the morning and in the Western half of the sky after noon. Still another system is good when there is enough light to cast a shadow. Place a stick on the center of the watch and hold it so that the shadow of the stick falls along the hour hand; one half the distance between the shadow and 12 o'clock is North.

**Health.** When you are solely dependent on yourself, as in a survival situation, every aggravation becomes very important. Some small problem which might be merely an inconvenience at home can easily become a serious hazard when you are struggling for life in a widnerness. A slight cut on the finger, an upset stomach, or a sprained ankle can keep you from doing those things necessary for life itself, so it is imperative that you take especially good care of your only machine, your body. Rudimentary first aid and common sense health precautions can be as important to you as the basic requirements for food and shelter.

The simple basic rules of first aid are common knowledge, but let us briefly review the most important points. When any bleeding occurs, stop it as soon as possible. First try to get the blood to clot by pressing on the wound with a sterile bandage; if the wound is on the arm or leg, elevate the cut portion of the body to slow the blood flow. If you know where the appropriate pressure point is, press there to help stop the bleeding. When you have no sterile bandages, they can be improvised by soaking pieces of cloth in boiling water for several minutes. You should only use a tourniquet as a last resort to stop bleeding, and when you do use one, loosen it frequently to prevent permanent damage to the limb. If the person is not breathing, you of course want to immediately apply artificial respiration, first checking the mouth and throat passage for any obstruction. Mouth-to-mouth resusitation has been proven to be the most effective method of artificial respiration. Broken bones are treated by relocating the bone as nearly as possible to its original position and then splinting the broken area to keep it immobile until it heals. Burns should be covered with a sterile bandage; normally the first bandage should not be removed or changed until healing is well started in the burned area. Removing a dressing too soon will disrupt the healing process. If possible increase the amount of liquid drunk by a burned person; the healing process utilizes much of the body's fluids.

Keeping the body healthy is not too difficult, if you observe some easy, common sense rules. Make every effort to stay clean outside and pure inside. Wash yourself when possible, using soap if you have it, or at least rub off the surface dirt and air the body if you can't wash. Take particular care to clean the portions of the body which perspire the most; the feet and crotch areas. Purify all water, and taste test any food you eat. Boil your water, and cook your food, avoiding any food which has a bitter taste when touched with the tip of the tongue. Do what you can to avoid extremes of temperature; do not get too warm or too cold. Protect yourself from

sun and insects by covering the entire body with clothing, even in the heat of the desert. Severe sunburn, on desert sands or mountain snowfields, can be as disabling as a broken leg. Protect your eyes from the sun with sunglasses if you have them, or make sunglasses from a piece of wood, cloth, or leather with narrow slits cut to see through. Try not to scratch insect bites; you may break the skin and begin a serious infection. Treat any insect bite, from bee sting to scorpion sting, with cold water. (If you get such a sting at home, you can put ice on the area stung.) This affords some relief from pain and itching, and it slows the blood flow in that area of the body so the poison spreads more slowly to other parts of the body. Keep yourself as dry as possible, especially the feet. Be very careful about touching metal objects, tools or weapons, when it is very cold or very hot; you can get a severe burn from hot metal, and your skin will freeze to cold metal and tear when you pull your hand away.

Insects are not only terribly irritating, but they are often disease hosts. Malaria and plague are only two diseases carried by insects; there are many others equally serious which can be contracted from insect bites. And never think that insects are found only in the jungle; desert sands are filled with fleas and scorpions; mosquitoes are thicker in the far north in the summer than they are in the tropics. Covering the body, including the use of gloves and a mosquito head net, which may be fabricated from any article of clothing, is your best protection against insects and other disease hosts. Whenever possible avoid mosquitoes, flies, fleas, ticks, lice, spiders, scorpions, bees, hornets, wasps, and leeches and worms. We've said you shouldn't scratch an insect bite, as it may cause an infection. Neither should you pull off a tick or a leech on your body. Pulling them out leaves their heads imbedded under the skin, which leads to infection. To remove ticks and leeches touch with a burning cigarette or hot coal, and they will back out so they may be brushed off the skin. You can avoid leeches and some worms by staying out of the water when possible. Another type of worm is found in the soil, and wearing some form of shoes protects you from these pests.

Finally, there are a few general health hints which are applicable to any climate or condition. Make an effort to eliminate body wastes regularly, even when eating irregularly. Don't let cold weather keep you from regular elimination; stored body wastes are worse than cold skin. Drink sufficient water, and maintain some intake of salt, even in very cold weather. Dehydration of the body is not visible, but it is a real danger to normal functioning. Refrain from alcohol and excessive smoking; both cause you to be more susceptible to disease. Protect the skin from sun and wind by covering up as much as possible and by using a lotion on lips and other exposed skin if it is available. If you are not alone, use the "buddy system." You and your buddy can watch each other for signs of exhaustion, frostbite, and sunburn. You can also help each other by picking off insects.

### *HELPFUL HINTS*

Related to the categories of general information previously discussed, but not fitting any one classification, are some common sense items which might be easily overlooked in the stress of the survival struggle. For instance, you very probably won't have much choice about what clothing you will have when suddenly dropped into a survival situation, but remember that everything can be useful. The same thought applies to any item of equipment; never throw away anything which might even possibly be useful either for the purpose intended

or for improvising some other article. Always wear your clothing in layers, taking off or adding to, to regulate temperature. Avoid wearing anything too tight, as this can restrict circulation and chaff the skin. If you are fortunate enough to have firearms of any type, protect them carefully. Keep them dry, out of the rain and the river or stream when fording. Do the same with your ammunition. Oil all metal parts to prevent rust and friction stoppage, but in areas where there is blowing sand, just wipe moving parts clean and don't lubricate them. The paste formed from oil and grit wears the weapon more than operation without oil does. In the very cold weather do not store the weapon in your heated shelter; when you take it outside and then bring it back condensation will form on the metal and rust it very quickly.

## *SURVIVAL IN SPECIAL SITUATIONS*

The items which have been discussed to this point are generally useful in every climate, anywhere in the world, whatever the season. There are, however, some ideas and survival techniques which are particularly useful in a specific type of weather or terrain. The following paragraphs are aimed at a few individual types of environment where special considerations are required for survival.

**Water Survival.** Wherever you find yourself, you will probably find that sooner or later survival includes some association with the water. If your boat engine stops, or there is no wind for your sail, your whole world is water. On the desert a flash flood can catch you unaware very quickly. Anywhere in the world, from arctic to tropic jungle, you will often be faced with the need to ford a river or stream. First you are concerned with just staying alive—your foremost goal is to avoid drowning. There is a set of simple skills and attitudes which are combined to provide drownproofing. Following these ideas can give you the confidence needed to stay alive in deep water for an indefinite period of time. Drownproofing is based on much the same concept as that noted for survival—take your time. Anything you can do to conserve energy increases your chances for surviving in the water. Obviously it takes less energy to float than it does to swim, so float if you can. If you can't float, then bob in the water. Bobbing is nothing more than floating beneath the surface, with the head coming up just enough for the face to clear the top of the water only long enough to inhale. This technique is particularly useful in rough waters, such as found in the open sea. When bobbing you remain suspended vertically in the water, just under the surface. Use a slow scissors kick and a single downward thrust of the arms to raise your face out of the water long enough to inhale. Exhale through compressed lips under the water. This procedure provides the maximum amount of resting time, protection from sun and rough seas, and requires a very minimum expenditure of energy. Loss of body heat in cold water is the only real disadvantage to the method, and that can be overcome by wearing as much clothing as possible.

By using this bobbing procedure you can forget about drowning, and you need never worry about tiring, for you will be resting most of the time. But on the other hand you'll never get anywhere. Normal swimming is too tiring to use for great distances; the overhand, or crawl stroke, the most common stroke, is also the most tiring method to use. There are, of course, less tiring strokes which you can use. Either form of the back stroke allows you to coast some, and get a little rest.

A modified version of the breast stroke, using the normal arm motions, but kicking up and down in the water with the legs as you do when dog-paddling, is a restful way to swim. And certainly the plain dog-paddle is one way to swim with a minimum amount of energy. But with all of these methods you have a portion of your body out of water, and what tires you most is keeping your body out of water. If you could swim a long way without breathing, it would be much the easiest method, for as long as your body is in the water the energy required to achieve forward motion is very small, but even Olympic swimmers can't swim far without breathing. There is a method, based on the drownproofing bobbing procedure, which keeps a maximum amount of the body underwater, requires a minimum amount of energy, and allows for almost constant rest.

Begin this five step procedure in the same vertical position as used in bobbing, taking in air with just the face out of the water, and expelling air through compressed lips under the water. Step (1) was the vertical float; step (2) was up to breath, and in step (3), begun as you come down from breathing, you lean your body forward, move your arms forward underwater in a diving motion, and execute a scissors kick. On step (4) you stroke to the rear with your arms, and in step (5) you glide as long as possible to return to the vertical position to breathe again. Accomplish these five steps with no more than the back of your head out of the water; rest on the long glide; take your time breathing, and only push yourself far enough out of the water to inhale. Remember, take your time. Your goal is not distance, nor is it speed. A good smooth stroke like this will take you one mile in one hour, without tiring you at all.

One of the chief advantages to the survivor of the method just described is that it is little more difficult with clothes on than without clothes. To a large extent, especially in the salty sea, the water is supporting the weight of your clothing. So you can arrive on the shore with the clothes which you will need to survive on land. And additionally, you have the warmth afforded by your clothing for protection while in the water. With only a very few hours of instruction young children who were non-swimmers learned to swim for several hours, with their clothes on, utilizing this drownproofing method.

Earlier we mentioned using makeshift flotation devices to assist you when crossing water. A piece of wood, or air-filled bottles, cans or canteens can serve this purpose. But the same help can be gotten from a pair of men's trousers. If knots are tied in the ends of the pant legs, approximately two gallons of air can be trapped in the trousers. Air is put into the legs by slinging the trousers over the head, or by holding the waistband at the surface and forcing air into the legs with a cupped hand, or by holding the trousers underwater and blowing air into them. Once the trousers are filled with air, tie off the waistband, or fold it over, and place the trousers around your waist, or over your head. The pants now look much like a life preserver ring, and you put your head between the legs.

All these helpful hints are useful to almost anyone. Even persons with one or more arms or legs injured can swim using the drownproofing procedure. But you must be conscious, so let's review some basic rules of water safety which can help you avoid injury. In a survival situation you may not be able to observe all of these rules, but keep them in mind anytime you are around the water. When you can avoid it, don't swim alone, or in an unsafe or unfamiliar area and stay near the boat or raft in

open water. Whether on a lake, a river, or in the open sea, it is extremely dangerous to leave your boat. Even if the boat is swamped, or overturned, you are much safer holding onto the boat than you are trying to swim away. Though filled with water or upside down, most boats will continue to float and will support you. If you find that you must go into the water, never dive in. Always go in feet first, for your feet are tougher than your head. Either walk in or jump into strange waters. Remember that distance is deceiving when looking over the water; don't ever overestimate your ability to swim without tiring. Finally, avoid swimming, if possible, just after eating a very large meal, or when overheated, or too tired.

In addition to observing the cautions noted above, be aware that there are times when you should not swim at all, because there is some hazard in the water which precludes swimming with even a reasonable risk. When at sea, and you have any reason to suspect the presence of sharks anywhere in the area, stay out of the water altogether, and never dangle your arms or legs over the side of the raft. In fact, keep everything out of the water. Don't toss anything in which might attract a shark; especially keep blood and food scraps out of the water. Even stirring the water with a paddle can attract a shark. Other large, dangerous animals to be found in the water are crocodiles and alligators, found in rivers. Not as large, but still classed as hazards, are jellyfish, stingrays, and barracudas. Equally dangerous is sea coral, which can seriously cut and infect any part of the body touching it. In short, there are some hazards in the water in every part of the world, and if you are to continue to survive, you must be cautious with all of these dangers. About 7,000 Americans a year are drowning victims, but if you take your time, don't panic, and utilize your strength effectively, you need not be one of that number.

Before getting back to the land to survive, let's say just a word or two about living on a life raft. Most of the survival techniques previously discussed can be applied in one way or another to staying alive on a raft in the sea. There, too, you take your time, conserve your energy, and maintain that all important will to live, the survival attitude. Remember to keep your clothing for protection from the sun, heat and cold. What has already been said about fishing is as applicable at sea as in a freshwater lake, and of course drinking sea water is just as dangerous as ever. The procedures for signalling are much the same, except that you will have some trouble building a smudge fire. It is important even at sea to take care of your feet, though you won't be walking until you get off the raft. There is a great danger in a raft from immersion foot, caused by the feet being constantly wet. Keep them as dry as possible; air them frequently, and massage them regularly. Be especially careful when moving about the raft, and don't tip it over. Not only will it be difficult to right again, but in doing so you will waste much needed energy. One of your primary activities on the raft will be watching for some sign of land. There are a few clues you might see long before land is near enough to be sighted. Sometimes at night, when sound carries best, you will be able to hear something on the land, or you might smell something from the land. Frequent sightings of birds, or vegetation floating in the water are sure signs of land. You might also watch the clouds; when a cloud hangs low to the water, with few other clouds in the sky, it may well be over an island. But until you do see some signs of land, remember that survival at sea requires patience above all other skills.

**Desert Survival.** Approximately one fifth of the world's surface is covered with desert areas, defined as dry, barren, sandy, without vegetation and relatively uninhabited. Much of this desert is in the southwestern United States. The lack of water and the excessive heat constitute the primary problems for one who must survive in a desert region. And no one can tell when they might face survival in a desert area. During the summer of 1972 a family; man, wife, and two children, were driving in the Grand Canyon of Arizona when their car stalled. They were miles from help, and without food or water. They ate the children's crayons, and drank water from the car radiator, and managed to survive until rescued.

In some desert areas the daytime temperature may reach as high as 130 degrees F., and with heavy exertion an individual can lose as much as 25 quarts of water each day in perspiration; therefore your foremost concern at all times must be water. Everything you do and fail to do affects the amount of water you require, so you plan to do nothing in the heat of the day and as much as possible at night, when it is cool. Each activity is planned with the consideration of water in mind. For example, walking in deep sand requires more energy than walking on a barren ridgeline. When you expend energy you sweat, and sweating causes you to need more water, which you have least of. So consequently you avoid walking in sand when you can. Even resting in the heat you can lose a pint of water an hour in perspiration, so TAKE YOUR TIME!! Two thirds of the human body is made up of water, and a 15% loss of fluid when the temperature is over 95 degrees can be fatal, so conserve water, but do not deprive yourself of the liquid intake the body needs.

When you perspire you not only lose water, but you lose salt as well. Therefore you must replenish salt as well as water. You can take in salt by eating salt tablets, drinking a limited amount of lightly salted water, or by adding extra salt to your food. Never take extra salt when you are short of water; it only increases thirst. The loss of salt and liquid, plus the heat of the sun, cause the four disabling problems of the desert: sunburn, heat cramps, heat exhaustion, and heat stroke. Sunburn can make you more than uncomfortable; it can make you violently ill, and sunburn lotion won't protect you. Cover the skin with clothing, and stay out of the sun when you can. Cramps are caused by a lack of salt, and exhaustion is caused by too little water and salt. The treatment for both is to cool the body and administer salt and water. Heat stroke is caused by a lack of sweating, so watch the man who does not sweat when exerting himself; keep him still and cool the body as much as possible. Learn not to waste any water that you have or find. If it is too salty to drink, you can cook with it. If it is impure, and you can't purify it, then wet the body and clothing with it to increase cooling by evaporation and cut down on perspiration.

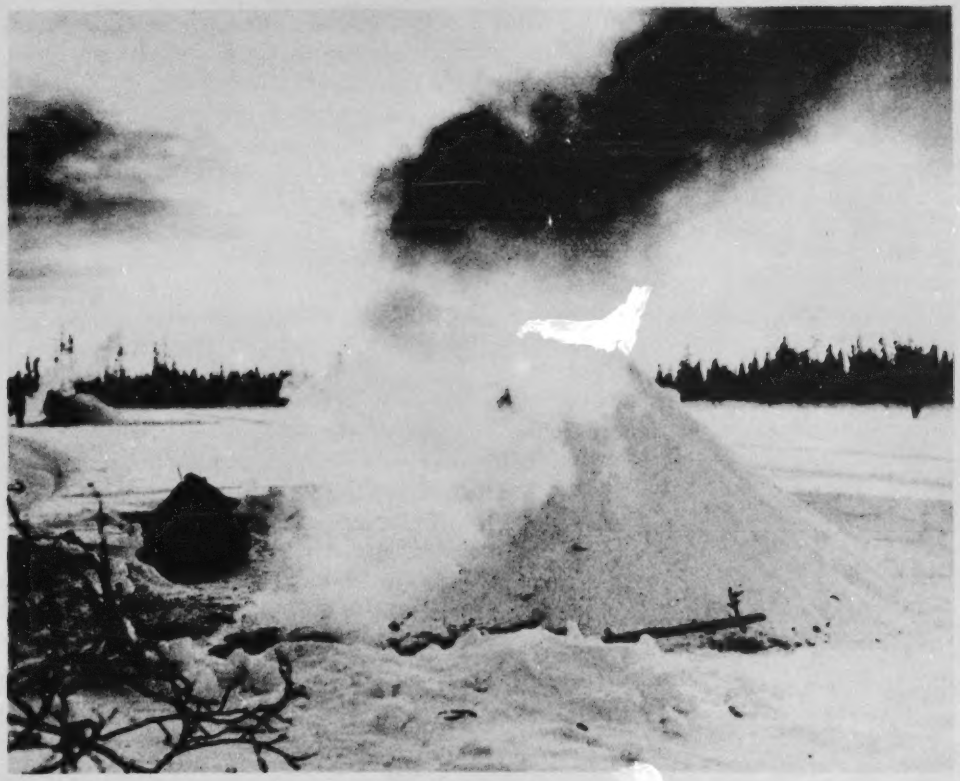
Navigation is made difficult in the desert because you can see too well, and at other times you can't see at all. The lack of prominent terrain features in desert regions, and the clear air, makes it difficult to estimate distance accurately. It is probably safe to multiply by three every distance you guess at, because everything looks nearer in clear air. A desert traveler may be further confused by seeing a mirage which is a layer of super-heated air of varying density which distorts and reflects distant objects. That lake or palm tree you see ahead of you may or may not really be there. Desert dust storms can cancel vision altogether, obscuring large objects which are very near you.

And the scouring action of blowing sand can disable an unprotected man. In a storm, stay low, behind a windbreak or in a ditch, and cover your eyes and mouth. Then just wait out the wind. Once again, remember that water is the key to survival in the desert—find it, use it, and reuse it. And never give up hope, even in the most severe conditions. Jack Sillito, an English soldier in the Second World War, survived in the desert of Africa because he just knew he would live. In five days time, with no food and very little water, he walked 180 miles to finally be rescued. If that young man could stay alive in the desert, then you can too.

**Tropical Jungle Survival.** In tropical terrain, as found in the swamps of our southern states, many of your survival problems are resolved quite easily. Procuring water, food, and shelter will not be any problem. Signalling will be more difficult, for you may well be hidden by dense vegetation, and traveling will be much harder, for you'll be confined by waterways, swamps, and thick jungle plants. Much the same sort of situation exists in the forests of the northeastern United States. But the greatest hazard in jungle survival is disease. Animals which you can see aren't as dangerous as many people believe. Unless cornered, they will avoid you, even the snakes. But disease germs carried in water and insects can kill you. There are no precautions against insects not already mentioned. But in jungle regions simple matters are even more important. Boil all water—shake out your boots and clothing before putting them on—cover all exposed skin—cook all food for purification. Excessive heat in the tropics can be as stifling as it is in the desert, so watch for signs of heat stroke, cramps, or exhaustion.

**Cold Weather and Mountain Survival.** The key to survival in these regions is protection from the extremes of climate, found in the mountains of the west and the tundra of Alaska and Canada. In the summer the insects can give you a great deal of trouble, but your primary concern most of the year will be the cold. We've already mentioned some aspects of surviving the cold, but here are a few more ideas. Cover exposed skin to prevent frostbite, and if a part of the body does get frostbitten, do not ever rub it. Delicate tissues are easily broken when exceedingly cold, and a skin break leads to infection. Warm the affected part by placing it on a warm part of your body, or of your buddy's body. A group of university athletes who survived the crash of an airliner in the Andes mountains in 1972 kept each other warm by huddling together, sharing their body heat. Warm a frostbitten cheek or ear with your hand; place cold hands against the stomach or thigh, and warm feet with hands, stomach, or thigh of you or your buddy. Constantly move the fingers, toes, and lips when they are exposed to keep them warm. If a buddy should fall in the water, the fastest way to warm him is to place your warm body against his, in a sleeping bag if possible. If that isn't possible, you or he can roll in the snow to blot off the water. Roll, then get up and brush off the snow, then roll again. Remember that a wind chill factor can lower already cold temperatures, so stay out of strong winds when possible. Some words of wisdom about sleeping bags—insulate the bag from the ground with a ground cloth or tree boughs when possible, and wear a minimum amount of clothing while in the bag, although you may want to put your socks and shirt in the bag with you to keep them warm.

There is a unique key word to remember how to effectively utilize and care for your clothing in cold weather. The word is *COLD*. *C*—keep clothing



*A snow hut, such as the ones pictured above in the Alaskan Arc... can provide the shelter needed in extremely cold areas. Some shelter, and a fire, can be the difference between life and death when surviving in an extremely cold environment.*

clean. *O*—avoid overheating. *L*—wear your clothing loose and in layers, opening a layer at a time when exercising to prevent overheating. *D*—keep all clothing dry, at all times possible. With the proper protective clothing you can survive while awaiting rescue, or while traveling for help. When traveling watch for slippery ice and dangerous crevices in the snow. It may be wise in some areas to carry a walking stick and test the footing ahead of you as you walk. If you have snowskis or snowshoes, then you can increase your rate of travel. Effective snowshoes can be improvised from woven branches, those from a willow tree are good, or from seat bottoms or small aluminum panels out of an aircraft.

## *PUTTING IT ALL TOGETHER*

By way of summary let's briefly outline the necessary actions for survival when you are one of the passengers in an airplane which has been forced down in an uninhabited region, such as the airliners which crashed in Florida and South America in 1972. For safety's sake the first thing you should do is get everyone clear of the aircraft until the engines cool and any spilled fuel has had a chance to cool. When the danger of fire or explosion has passed you can salvage anything of value from the plane. While waiting for the plane to cool, begin any first aid treatment required by injured personnel. Remember the basic priorities for first aid: stop

the bleeding, treat for shock, and set broken bones. Your next tasks will be to get into some sort of temporary shelter and get a fire started. You'll recall that even if it is not cold you're going to need a fire for signalling and water purification. At a later time you can determine whether it is best to move from that place, or whether you need to begin construction of more permanent shelter. When these initial jobs are finished, begin working with your radio, if you have one, and any other form of signalling device to try to attract help. It may be some time before a search is started for you, but the sooner you begin signalling, the better your chances for rescue. Someone may have noticed the plane go down, and that person will be more alert for your signal soon after the crash. Now is the time to get organized. Pool the survival gear you have, and decide what you need and what you can improvise. If you've made the decision to stay where you are, you will need to get the camp set up for maximum comfort and convenience. Start looking for water, food, and a continuing fuel supply. It would be wise to begin a camp log; if it is going to be an extended stay, the days will tend to blur into each other, and a chronicle of events will help you keep track of time and happenings. Finally, do what you can to locate yourself. Look for familiar landmarks; attempt to identify surrounding terrain features, and generally try to determine exactly where you are. While it is best to stay with the plane, remember if you do move out leave a note with the aircraft.

Knowing now the tasks you will need to tackle in any survival situation, you

*A downed transport aircraft, similar to the four engine transport pictured above, can provide a wealth of material useful to the person who is dependent on himself alone for survival.*

can appreciate the need for a survival kit of some sort. Most aircraft have a survival kit packed and stored for emergencies. If you are going to be hiking, boating or driving in wilderness areas, it might be wise to put together your own personal survival kit. A review of the nice-to-have items in such a kit will serve as a reminder of the tools you're going to need and the required items which you must be prepared to improvise if you don't have them. Listed below are the components of a minimum survival kit for any geographical region:

1. Knife—a small hachet would be handy, but a knife is a necessity.
2. Compass—one with luminous needle is good.
3. Map of the area—as small a scale as possible.
4. Matches—in a waterproof container, and don't waste them.
5. Flashlight—the larger the better; a five cell light is good.
6. Clothes—appropriate to the climate; good boots a necessity.
7. Water purification tablets—save them when you can boil your water.
8. Rations—preferably dry survival rations; use them sparingly.
9. Signalling equipment — radio, flares, colored panels, signal mirror.
10. First aid kit—as fully equipped as you have room for.
11. Sunglasses—a spare pair might be needed.
12. Candles—good for heating, light, and fire starting.
13. Watch—time knowledge is useful, and it can substitute for a compass.
14. Fishing gear—line and hooks don't take up much space.
15. Fine wire or cord—good for lashings, fishing, and animal snares.
16. Pencil and paper—for a log and any notes you need to leave.
17. Extra socks—wool absorbs moisture best.
18. Weapon and ammunition—a rifle is better than a handgun.
19. Salt tablets—especially important in the desert.
20. Fire starter—tinder in a waterproof container, and flint and steel.
21. Safety pins—good for clothing, bandages, emergency fish hooks.
22. Bouillon cubes—long lasting ration; good to flavor natural foods.
23. Heat tablets—excellent for fire starting in wet weather.

Perhaps this seems like a long list, but with careful packing it can be stored in a small space, and could very well be a lifesaver. Certainly there are many other items you could add to the list, and if possible you should expand this shopping list. It would be nice if you could have a sleeping bag, and a canteen or other water container. A water supply and extra food would also be useful, but you can manage without them.

One more time, the key to survival is summarized in the word itself. *S*, size up your situation. *U*, undue haste makes waste. *R*, remember where you are. *V*, vanquish fear and panic, *I*, improvise. *V*, value living. *A*, act like a native. *L*, learn basic skills. Finally, the most important rule of all *TAKE YOUR TIME*. Never rush; your hurried movements lead to accidents and wasted energy. Stop and think, then act, with common sense your guide. You might take a hint from Major General William F. Dean, United States Army, who spent three years as a prisoner of the North Koreans in the early fifties. General Dean had a passionate desire to live; he practiced personal sanitation and all the other rules of survival we have discussed, and he did survive under some very harsh conditions.

# CHALLENGES IN LEADERSHIP

PART FOUR

## MARKSMANSHIP AND WEAPONS

CHAPTER 14

# THE M-16 RIFLE

The M-16 Rifle appeared as the *Stoner* AR-15, named for its designer Eugene M. Stoner, who produced the first model in 1957. The U.S. Army purchased a small quantity of these rifles in 1962 for testing and evaluation. By 1964 a limited number of special combat units began to use them in Vietnam, and in 1965 General William Westmoreland requested that all Army maneuver battalions in Vietnam be supplied with the M-16.

In January 1967 the Army began to replace all of its .30 caliber rifles with M-16's. It was a popular weapon with the troops because it was light in weight, easy to maintain, and was capable of rapid automatic fire. Another advantage of the M-16 is that it can be mass produced at relatively low cost using light-weight plastics and metal alloys.

In 1967 Marine Corps units in Vietnam began to replace their .30 caliber M-14 rifles with the new M-16. By 1968 all Marine combat and combat support units had the M-16. It is today the primary individual weapon of the Marine rifleman.

## DESCRIPTION AND GENERAL DATA

The M-16 Rifle is a 5.56-mm., magazine-fed, gas-operated, shoulder weapon. By changing the position of a selector lever, the rifle can be made to deliver either fully automatic or semiautomatic fire.

The rifle has a flash suppressor mounted on the muzzle. The barrel is surrounded by a heat resistant material, made of fiberglas, which has been shaped into a handguard and forearm.

A rubber pad is mounted on the butt of the stock. This pad helps absorb the recoil of firing.

Should the bolt fail to go all the way forward during operation, there is a "forward assist assembly" located on the rear receiver. Pressure on the assembly will assist the action spring in driving the bolt fully home.

### WEIGHTS

| | |
|---|---|
| Rifle without magazine and sling | 6.5 lb. |
| Full magazine (20 rounds) | .7 lb. |
| Firing weight | 7.6 lb. |

### LENGTH

| | |
|---|---|
| Rifle overall with flash suppressor | 39 in. |

### SIGHTS

Front — Adjustable click type post. Each click equals 2.8 centimeters per every 100 meters of range.

Rear — Adjustable, flip type. Normal range setting is for 0 to 300 meters. Long-range setting (L) 300 to 500 meters. Each notch of the windage drum equals 2.8 centimeters per every 100 meters of range.

| | |
|---|---|
| Sight radius | 19.75 inches. |



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*OPERATIONAL CHARACTERISTICS*

| | |
|---|---|
| Muzzle energy | 1,300 foot pounds (approx). |
| Muzzle velocity | 3,250 feet per second (approx). |
| Maximum range | 2,653 meters. |
| Maximum effective range | 460 meters. |
| Cyclic rate of fire | 700 to 800 rounds per minute. |
| Maximum rate of fire: | |
| Semiautomatic | 45 to 65 rounds per minute. |
| Automatic | 150 to 200 rounds per minute. |
| Sustained rate of fire | 12 to 15 rounds per minute. |

## DISASSEMBLY AND ASSEMBLY

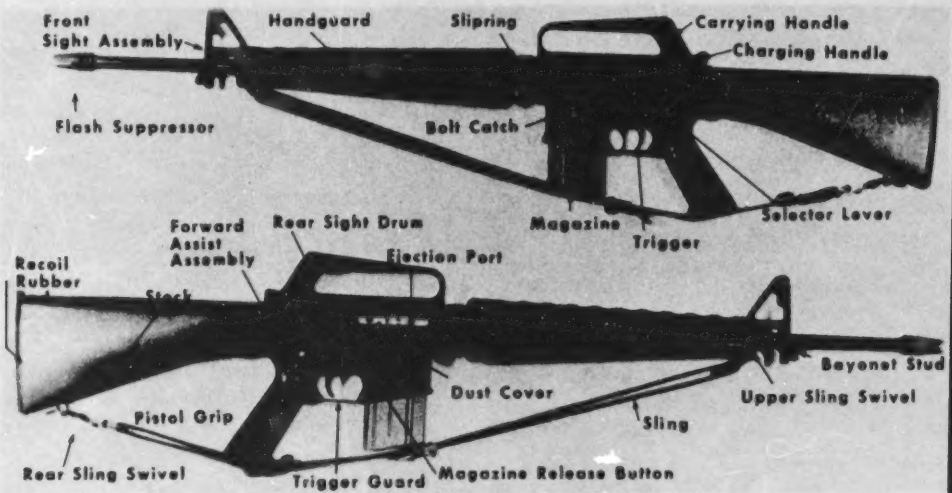
Before taking your rifle apart, you should know the names of all parts visible on the outside. Then, as you disassemble the rifle, learn the nomenclature of all parts described in this chapter. The better you know the names of the parts the sooner you can master the functioning of your rifle.

As each part is removed, lay it on a clean surface, working from left to right in order of removal. This establishes a pattern and makes assembly easier, since you simply put the parts together in reverse order.

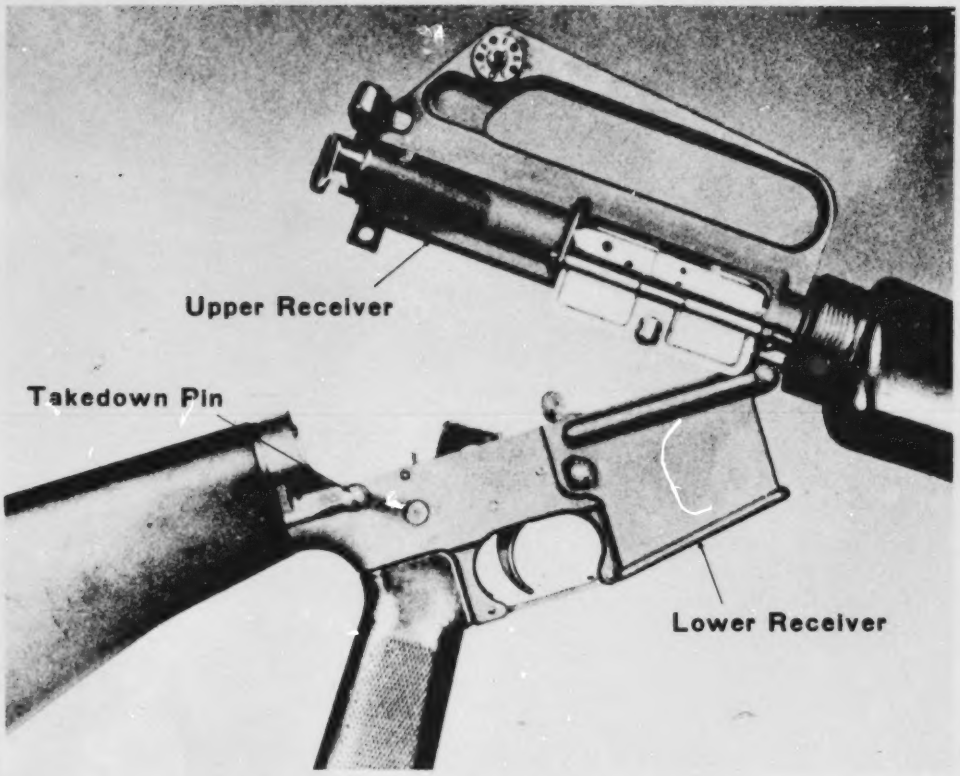
Field stripping is the separation of the rifle into its major groups, removal of the bolt and the handguards. Field stripping is sufficient for daily cleaning of the rifle when it has not been fired or exposed to bad weather, sand, or dust. The steps in field stripping follow:

Place the rifle on a flat working surface, muzzle to your left, with the dust cover open and up. Next, push the magazine catch button on the right side of the receiver and remove the magazine. Then pull the charging handle to the rear and look inside the chamber to make sure the weapon is clear; release the charging handle, allowing the bolt to travel closed. Put the selector lever on safe and remove the sling from the rifle.

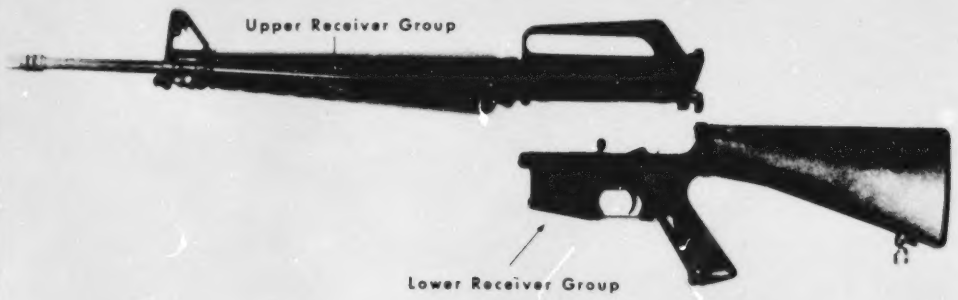
Keep the muzzle pointing to your left and turn the rifle over. Use the nose of a cartridge or other pointed object to press the take-down pin toward the right side of the receiver until the upper receiver swings free of the lower receiver. The takedown pin does not come out of the receiver.




*The rifle, M-16, 5.56mm, right and left side views.*




*Pressing the take-down pin to the right causes the upper receiver to swing free of the lower receiver.*




*Upper and lower receiver groups.*

Use the nose of the cartridge or pointed object to press the receiver pivot pin to the right, then separate the lower receiver group from the upper receiver group and place it on your working surface.

Keep the muzzle to the left and pick up the upper r ceiver group. Grasp the charging handle between the thumb and forefinger of the right hand, press in on the latch, and pull the charging handle to the rear. This action will with-

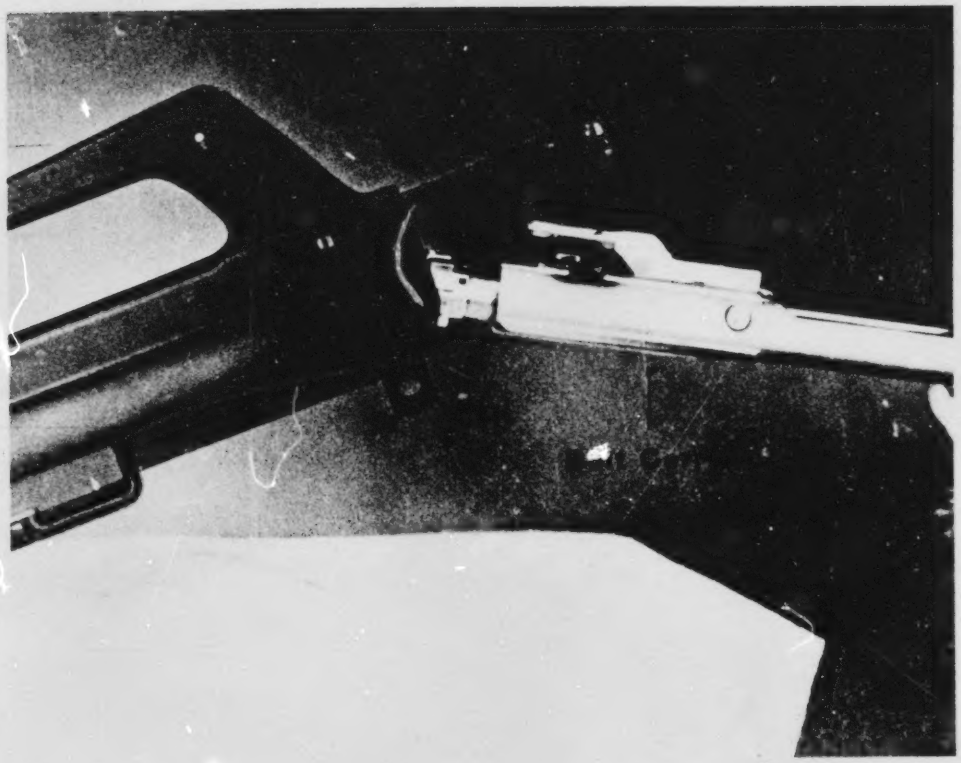
*Pulling the charging handle to the rear.*

draw the bolt carrier from the receiver. Next, pull the bolt carrier clear of the receiver, and remove it. The charging handle will then fall free of its groove in the receiver and can also be removed. Place the upper receiver on the working surface.

Now you are ready to disassemble the bolt carrier group. Hold the bolt carrier group in your left hand and press out the firing pin by using the nose of a cartridge, or pointed object. Then raise the front end of the bolt carrier and allow the firing pin to drop from its well in the bolt. Then rotate the bolt until the cam pin is clear of the bolt carrier key. Remove the cam pin by rotating it one-quarter turn and lifting it out of the well in the bolt and bolt carrier. After the cam pin is removed, the bolt will easily slide out of its recess in the bolt carrier.

The last parts to be removed are the handguards. To remove them, place the upper receiver on the working surface with the muzzle up. Pull down on the slipring with the left hand until it clears the lower lip of the handguard. Pull out and down on one section of the handguard with the right hand, until the upper lip clears the handguard cap. Repeat the operation for the other section of the handguard. You will have to exert considerable pressure to force the slipring down.

You have now completed field stripping of the rifle. You may reassemble it by simply reversing the steps covered thus far.



*Removing the bolt carrier from the upper receiver.*

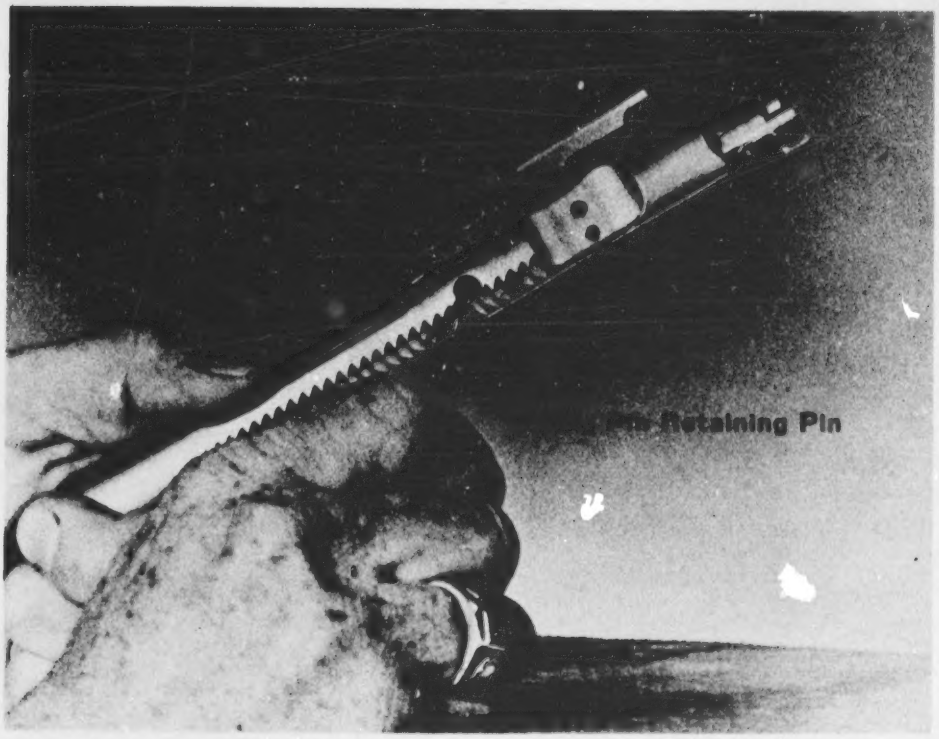
*FUNCTION CHECK*

A complete function check of the rifle consists of testing its operation with the selector lever set on each of the three positions—SEMI; AUTO; and SAFE. Before checking in any position, place the upper and lower receiver groups in the open position by pushing in on the takedown pin and swinging the two receiver groups apart. The magazine should be removed and the rifle cocked.

When checking the SEMI position, pull the trigger. The hammer should fall. Hold the trigger to rear, recock hammer and release trigger. Hammer should transfer from hammer hooks and disconnect to the hammer and sear engagement.

When checking the AUTO position, pull the trigger. The hammer should fall. Hold trigger to rear and recock the hammer. Hammer is now under the automatic sear. Hammer should fall to the sear engagement.

When checking the SAFE position, pull the trigger. Hammer should not fall. Now close the upper and lower receiver groups and push the takedown pin into place. Place the selector lever in the SEMI position. Pull the charging handle to the rear. Inspect the chamber for safety and release the charging handle. Pull the trigger. The hammer should fall. The function check is completed.




*Pressing out the firing pin retaining pin.*

*LOADING AND UNLOADING*

Remove the magazine. Place a round on top of the follower, nose toward smooth face of the magazine. Press down. Repeat until 20 rounds are in the magazine.

Cock the rifle. Place selector lever on SAFE. Insert the magazine into magazine feedway, pushing up until a click is heard.

Pull the charging handle all the way to the rear and release it. Do not ride the charging handle forward. As the bolt carrier moves forward under force of the action spring, it strips a round from the magazine and chambers it. If the weapon is not to be fired immediately, leave the dust cover. The dust cover will open automatically when the first round is fired.

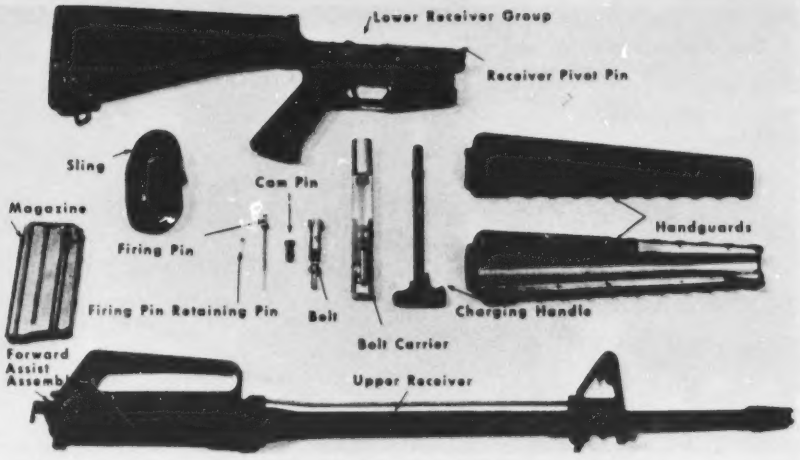
The bolt catch will hold the bolt carrier to the rear after the last round is fired. To change magazines, press the magazine catch button, allowing the empty magazine to fall. Place the new magazine in the feedway and push up until it is fully seated. Press the bolt catch on the left of the receiver and allow the bolt carrier to go forward. This action will chamber a round from the fresh magazine and you are ready to commence firing.

NOTE: SHOULD THE BOLT FAIL TO GO HOME AT ANY TIME, PUSH SHARPLY ON THE FORWARD ASSIST ASSEMBLY WITH THE HEEL OF THE RIGHT HAND.

To unload the rifle and make it safe, the selector is placed on SAFE. Then

*Removing the cam pin.*

*Removing the handguards*




*Field stripping completed.*

the magazine is removed. Pull the charging handle to the rear and inspect the chamber to make certain it is empty. Lock the bolt carrier to the rear by depressing the lower portion of bolt catch. Return the charging handle to the forward position. NOTE: THE RIFLE IS CLEAR ONLY WHEN: NO ROUND IS IN THE CHAMBER; THE MAGAZINE IS REMOVED; THE BOLT CARRIER IS TO THE REAR; AND THE SELECTOR LEVER IS ON "SAFE."

## FUNCTIONING

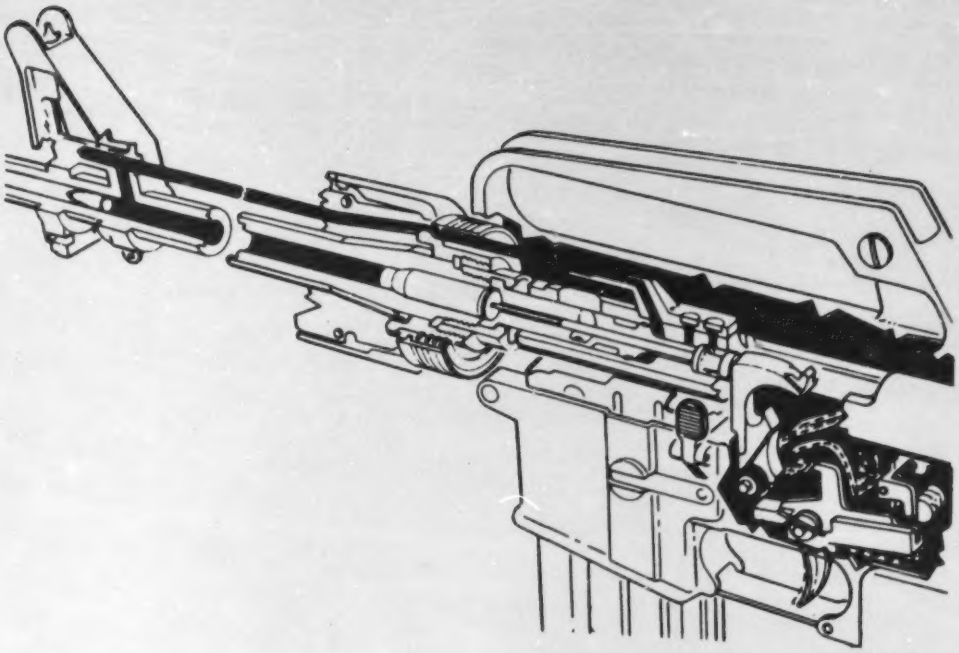
When you fire a round from your rifle, the explosion of the powder drives the projectile through the barrel. The explosion is really gas, generated by the burning powder, expanding with extreme speed. The rifle uses a portion of this expanding gas as energy to eject the empty cartridge case and reload a fresh round. Through a series of cams, lugs, springs, and grooves, this energy makes the rifle function. This functioning consists of 10 basic steps, some of which take place at the same time as others. The functioning may be automatic or semiautomatic, depending on the setting of the selector lever. The way to learn how your rifle functions is to: completely master the nomenclature, then understand semiautomatic fire, and then note the difference between semiautomatic and automatic fire. The better you understand functioning, the quicker you can locate the cause of any stoppage and remove or repair it.

### SEMIAUTOMATIC FIRE

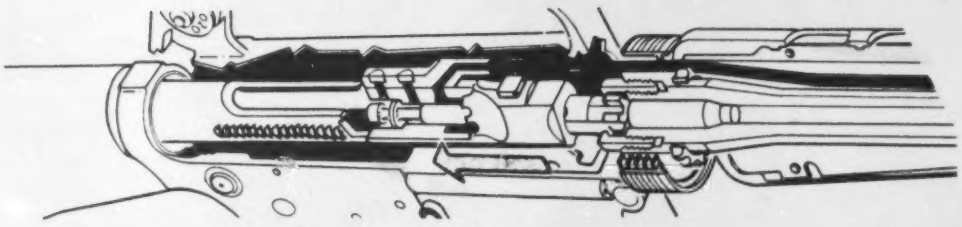
There are 10 basic steps, or actions, that take place in functioning. They are:

(1) Firing.
(2) Action of the gas.
(3) Unlocking.
(4) Extracting.
(5) Ejecting.
(6) Cocking.
(7) Feeding.
(8) Action of the buffer assembly.
(9) Chambering.
(10) Locking.

**Firing.** When the trigger is pulled it rotates on the trigger pin. This depresses the nose of the trigger and disengages it from the bottom of the hammer. The hammer is driven forward by the action of the hammer spring. It strikes the head of the firing pin, driv-



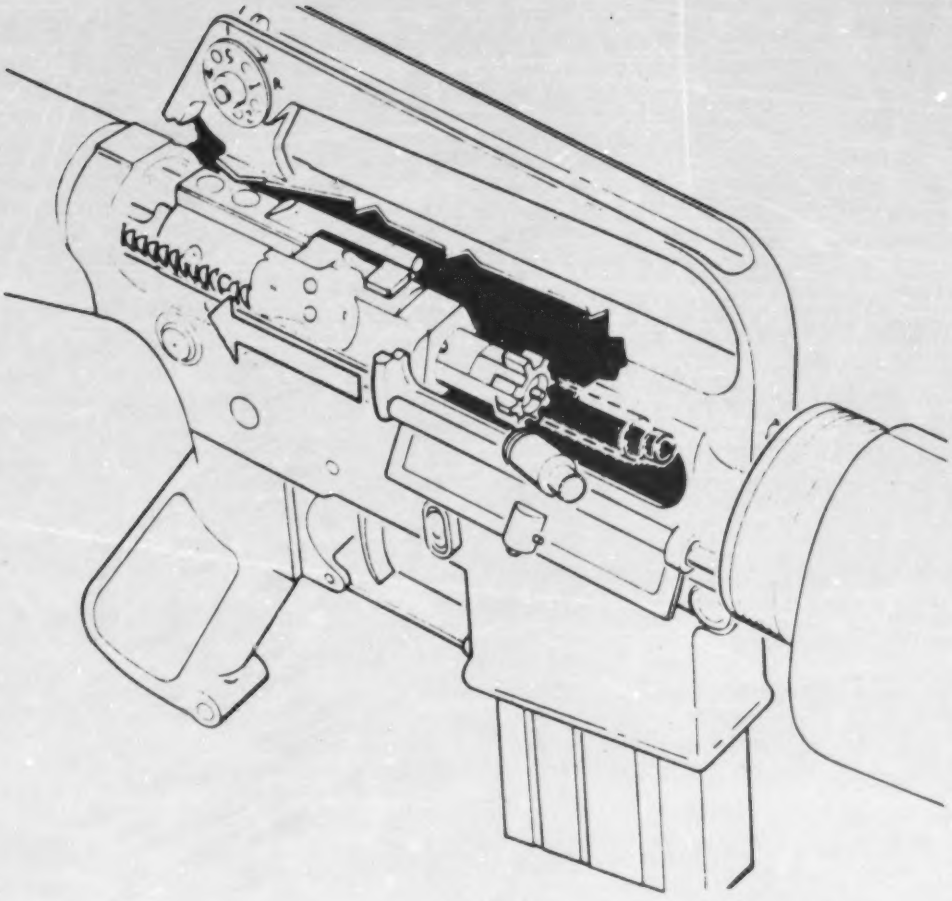
*Firing.*



*Extracting.*

ing the firing pin forward through the bolt into the primer of the round, and the primer ignites the powder. The disconnect is attached to the trigger and rotates forward by action of the disconnect spring. When the hammer is cocked by the recoil of the bolt carrier, the disconnect engages the lower hook of the hammer and holds it. Thus the weapon fires only one round. When the trigger is released, the disconnect rotates down, disengaging the hammer and allowing it to rotate forward until caught by the nose of the trigger. This action of the disconnect prevents the hammer from following the bolt carrier forward and causing automatic fire.

**Action of the Gas.** When the primer ignites the powder, the explosion caused by the rapidly expanding gases forces the projectile through the barrel. Gas follows the projectile down the bore. As the gas passes the gas port (located on top of the barrel under the front sight) a small portion of it passes through the gas port and into the gas tube. The gas tube directs the gas into the cylinder between the bolt and bolt carrier, causing the bolt carrier to move rearward.



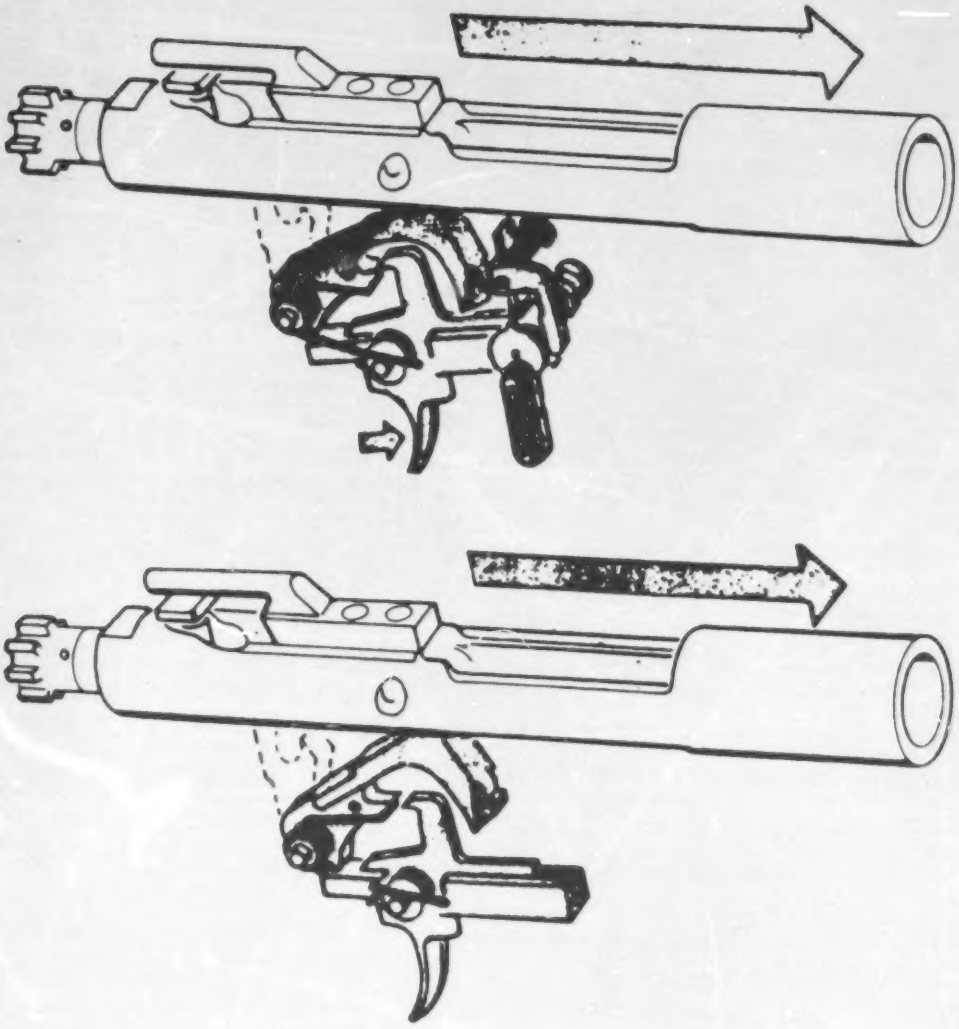
*Ejecting.*

**Unlocking.** As the bolt carrier moves to the rear, the cam track in its upper surface acts on the bolt cam pin, rotating the cam pin and bolt clockwise until the locking lugs of the bolt are no longer in line with the locking lugs of the barrel extension.

**Extraction.** The bolt carrier continues to the rear, carrying with it the bolt. By means of the extractor, which is attached to the bolt, the expended cartridge is withdrawn from the chamber. The claw of the extractor is gripping the rim of the cartridge, holding the base of the cartridge against the face of the bolt.

**Ejecting.** When the base of the cartridge is against the face of the bolt, the ejector spring is compressed. As the bolt carrier clears the ejection port, the empty cartridge case is thrown out by the expanding action of the ejector and spring.

**Cocking.** The rearward movement of the bolt carrier overrides the hammer, forcing it to rotate backward and down and to compress the hammer spring. The lower hook of the hammer is engaged by the disconnect. When the trigger is released, the hammer slips from the disconnect and is caught by the nose of the trigger. The trigger



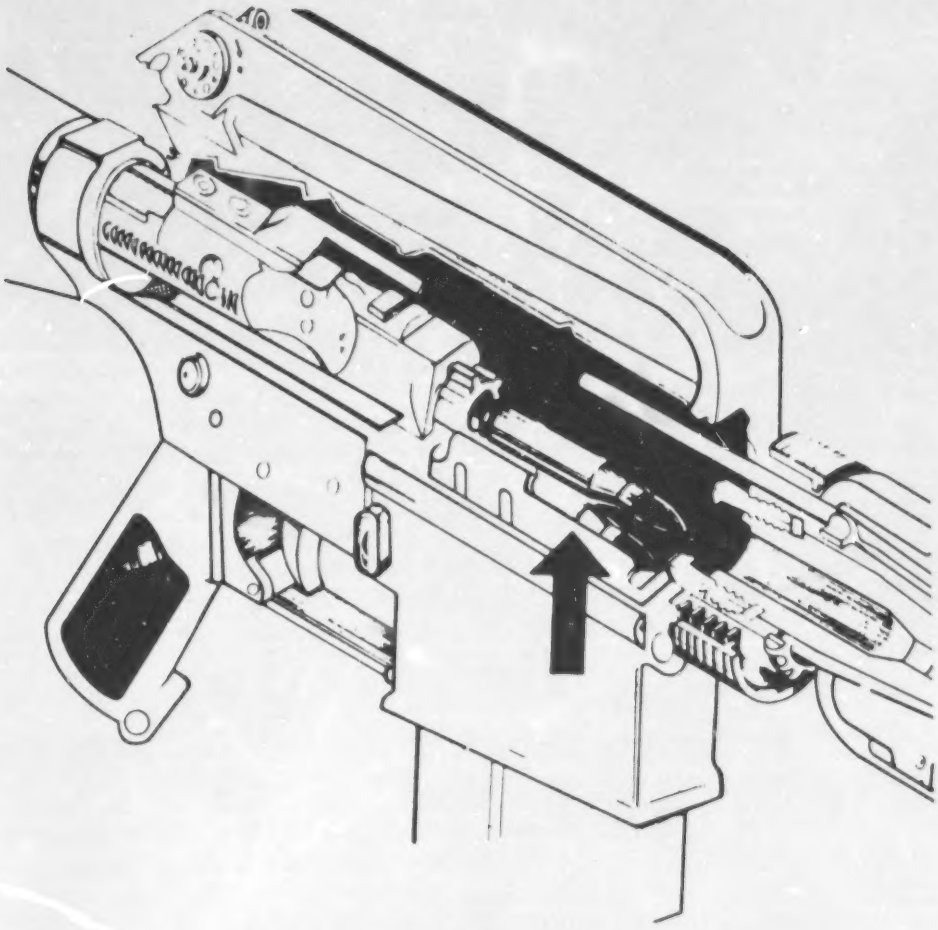
*Cocking—showing the disconnect action and the hammer caught by the nose of the trigger.*

must be pulled again before another round is fired.

**Feeding.** As the bolt carrier group clears the top of the magazine, the magazine spring expands. This forces the follower up, which, in turn pushes a new round in the path of the bolt.

**Action of the Buffer Assembly.** As the bolt carrier group is moving rearward, the head of the buffer is struck. This blow sends the action spring guide assembly and action spring rearward into the receiver extension. The action spring then expands and sends the action spring guide assembly forward with enough force to drive the bolt carrier forward toward the chamber. The buffer assembly is designed to reduce recoil of the rifle.

**Chambering.** As the bolt carrier group is driven forward, the face of the bolt strips a round from the magazine



*Feeding.*

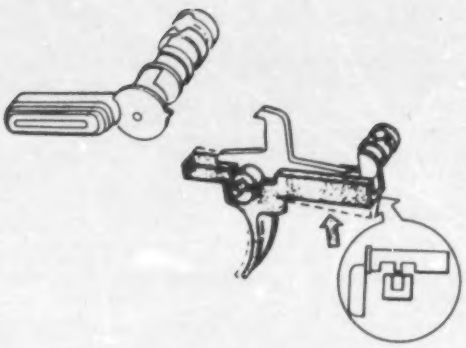
and thrusts it into the chamber. At the same time the extractor claw grips the base of the new round and the ejector is compressed.

**Locking.** When the bolt cam pin emerges from the guide channel in the upper receiver and moves along the cam track, rotating the bolt counterclockwise into the locked position, the rifle is ready to fire.

AUTOMATIC FIRE

When the selector lever is set on AUTO the rifle will fire until the trigger is released or the magazine is empty. Listed below are the changes in functioning which take place when the rifle is fired with the selector on AUTO.

As the trigger is pulled, the cycle of operation begins. The rifle fires; gas acts; and unlocking, extracting, and



*Showing the selector lever set on AUTO, the center cam blocking the disconnect. Insert shows end view of selector lever in the AUTO position.*

ejecting take place as in semiautomatic fire. But, as the hammer is cocked, the center cam of the selector prevents the disconnect from engaging the hammer.

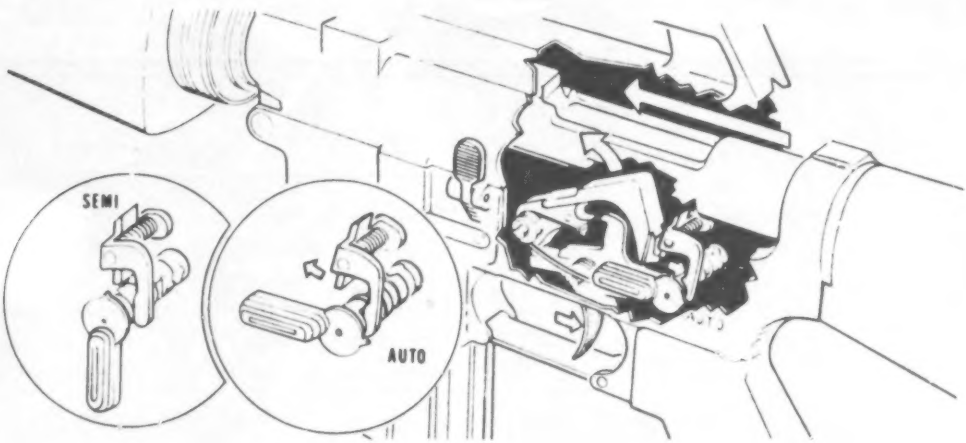
The automatic sear then catches the upper hook of the hammer and holds it until the bolt carrier group moves forward. As the bolt carrier group strikes the top of the automatic sear, the hammer is released. The hammer drives the firing pin forward and the rifle fires again.

When the trigger is released, the hammer moves forward and is caught by the nose of the trigger. This ends automatic fire until the trigger is pulled again. Feeding, action of the buffer assembly, chambering, and locking are the same as in semiautomatic fire.

When the magazine is empty, on either AUTO or SEMI setting of the selector, the follower rises to the top of the magazine under pressure of the magazine spring. The follower presses against the bolt catch, trying to push it toward the inside of the lower receiver. The explosion of the last round forces the bolt carrier group to the rear. When the bolt carrier reaches the rearward position, the bolt catch is then able to move into the path of the bolt and hold it to the rear.

Removing the magazine will not release the bolt catch, since it is held in position by pressure of the bolt. To release the bolt carrier group, press the head of the bolt catch located on the left side of the lower receiver. IF A NEW MAGAZINE HAS BEEN INSERTED AND YOU RELEASE THE BOLT CATCH, THE WEAPON WILL LOAD AND BE READY TO FIRE.

To keep the bolt carrier group to the rear when making the rifle safe, pull the charging handle to the rear. Then press on the LOWER portion of the




*Automatic sear.*

bolt catch. Shove the charging handle forward and place the selector lever of SAFE. Thus the bolt is open, the chamber is clear, and the safety is on. The magazine should be removed. Then the weapon is considered clear.

## CARE AND CLEANING

The most common cause of stoppages is improper care and cleaning. Normal care and cleaning of your rifle will keep it functioning properly. Listed below are some hints on how to clean and lubricate the M-16 rifle. Remember to conduct the function check you learned earlier after you have cleaned and reassembled your rifle.

Attach a stiff wire brush to the cleaning rod, dip it in bore cleaner, and push it all the way through the bore. Withdraw the brush and repeat the action several times. NEVER MOVE THE BRUSH BACK AND FORTH INSIDE THE BORE. Remove the brush and substitute patches. Swab the bore with patches until they come out clean and dry. Then clean the locking lugs in the barrel extension with a small bristle brush. After cleaning apply a light coat of oil to the bore and the locking lugs, and to that part of the barrel that is enclosed by the handguards.

Remove the bolt carrier group from the upper receiver and disassemble. Clean all surfaces with a patch dipped in bore cleaner. Clean the locking lugs on the bolt with a small brush and bore cleaner. Dry the locking lugs and oil lightly. Put one drop of oil in each hole on the right side of the bolt carrier and the open end of the bolt carrier key. DO NOT ATTEMPT TO REMOVE ANY DISCOLORATION CAUSED BY HEAT.

To clean and lubricate the lower receiver group you need only brush the parts, as they remain assembled, and apply a drop of oil on each pin. However, if your rifle has been subjected to salt air, water, mud, or sand, then you must completely disassemble the lower receiver group. Clean all parts thoroughly with bore cleaner, wipe them dry and oil them slightly.

## STOPPAGES AND IMMEDIATE ACTION

A stoppage is any unintentional interruption of the cycle of operation. The first thing to do when a stoppage occurs is to apply immediate action.

Immediate action is the procedure used for the prompt reduction of most common stoppages. Follow the procedures below:

1. Pull the charging handle to the rear and release it.
2. Strike the forward assist assembly to fully seat the bolt.
3. Strike the bottom of the magazine to make sure it is fully seated.
4. Re-aim and attempt to fire the rifle.

Should the rifle still fail to fire, note the step, of the 10 steps of functioning, at which the stoppage occurred. Investigate the cause of the malfunction and correct it.

CHAPTER 15

# RIFLE COACHING

## *COACH-SHOOTER RELATIONSHIP*

Teaching and coaching in marksmanship must be logical and methodical. In order to receive the necessary response and results from the average shooter, the coach must be able to analyze mistakes, dispel false notions, be sympathetic, encouraging, and honest. As each shooter is an individual, the coach must be able to determine the characteristics that affect him. Knowing these, he may apply his coaching psychology to establish a satisfactory relationship. The initial contact between a coach and shooter will be the training period. During this time the coach will call upon his experience to impart knowledge and correct bad firing habits. This training period is of as much benefit to the coach as it is to the shooter. As the training progresses, so does the mutual confidence that is so necessary to their relationship.

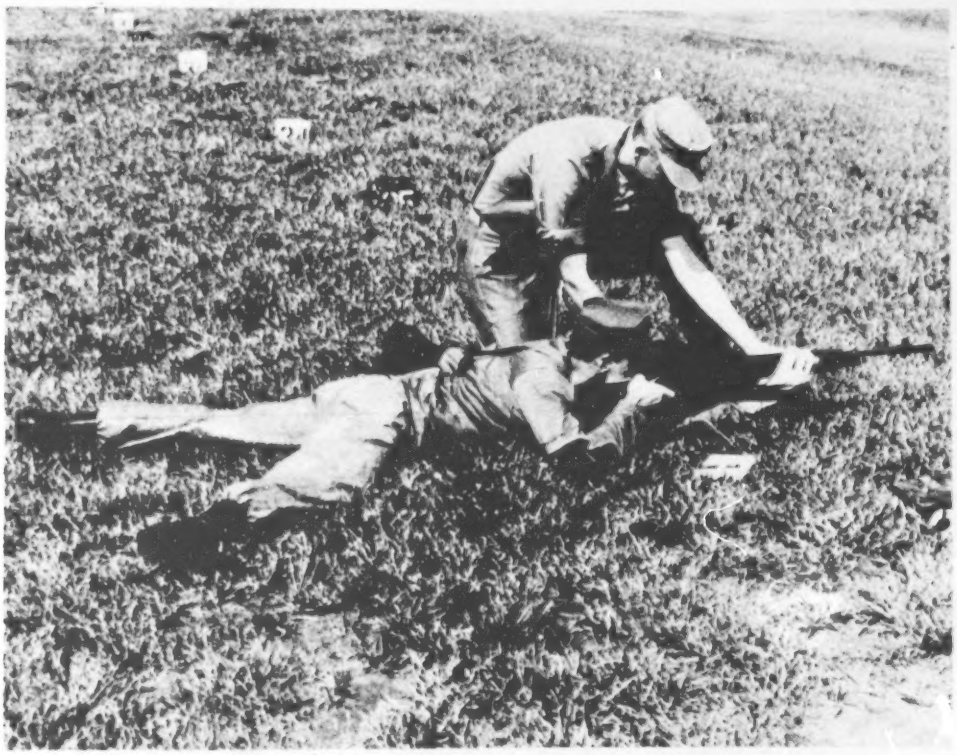
There are many characteristics and attributes of a good coach which contribute to the success of a firing team.

*A coach's helpful attitude is as important as anything he does. Helping his shooter adjust the loop sling is a small part of the coaching job.*

The most important, however, is the coach's ability to establish the proper "Coach-Shooter" relationship. This is nothing more than a mutual understanding which creates conditions that allow the coach and the shooter to produce the highest scores possible. If there is a conflict in personalities between the coach and shooter, the overall team is adversely affected. This has been and will continue to be a problem for all coaches.

*ATTRIBUTES OF A COACH*

The following attributes are by no means the key to success for establishing the coach-shooter relationship. If a shooter cannot benefit from training, correction, or practice, all these points have little value. The psychology and techniques of coaching are still a personal thing and the developing of the coach-shooter relationship can only be the product of experience, practice, and the diligent application of these attributes: (1) The coach must be an experienced marksman. The coach's previous experience as a shooter will enable him to understand the problems that his shooters have. (2) He must approach his team assignment with a cheerful and understanding attitude. (3) He should insist on proper application of fundamentals. (4) He should be thoroughly grounded in the principles of detection and correction of errors. (5) He must have the ability to read the wind and mirage consistently from day to day. This is an important aspect in establishing zeros. This ability increases with practice and



*This picture demonstrates a coach helping a shooter align his rifle, while the shooter is holding the correct prone position.*

experience. (6) He must promote team spirit and the will to win. (7) He must apply the correct coaching techniques. (8) He must insist on correct, prompt execution of instructions and commands. (9) He must never overlook the fact that each shooter is an individual with a personality of his own.

### *TECHNIQUES OF A COACH*

The techniques employed by the team coach during the conduct of team firing is the single factor responsible for the attainment of winning scores. The coach's skill, patience, and enthusiasm are all directed toward this one goal, and he must acquire the best possible performance from his shooters.

## COACHING HINTS FOR THE SHOOTER

### *FIRING POSITION*

First of importance is the position. The coach must insure that all the available support areas of the shooter's body are used to the maximum. A prone position is more stable than a standing position because there is a much larger support area. In positions where only a minimum of support area is available, the shooter must learn to locate the center of gravity of the body-rifle structure so that proper balance is maintained and the best hold is induced.

The position which delivers the best hold is based upon bone support. Bone structure supports the weight of the rifle. Because the muscles are relieved of this weight, they are less likely to fatigue and develop tremors. The shooter maintains better muscle control, and his area of wobble remains at a minimum throughout the course of fire.

### *MUSCLE TENSION*

To aid in holding the body still, the shooter should maintain a slight degree of tension in all body muscles. This tension provides for finer graduations of muscle control.

It must be emphasized that the tension is very slight. Completely tensed or "locked" muscles quickly fatigue and begin to tremble slightly. The correct tension is very near to complete relaxation.

### *MENTAL PROCESSES INVOLVED IN SHOOTING*

In the moment before pulling the trigger, the shooter is attempting to stop the movement of the body and hold the rifle in the center of the target. He is thinking about stopping all movement in his body muscles and maintaining body control.

He "concentrates" upon body control. He is aware of these different muscular activities. His mental processes are best defined as a state of heightened awareness of the conditions of his body. This awareness of body control should continue through the delivery of the shot to provide follow-through. This is especially necessary in smallbore shooting because of the relatively slow barrel time of the bullet in transit.

### *BREATH CONTROL*

The coach should point out that correct breathing is essential to proper body functioning. A respiratory cycle lasts 4-5 seconds. Inhalation and exhalation require only about 2 seconds. Thus between each respiratory cycle there is a pause of 2-3 seconds. This pause can be extended to 6-8 seconds without any special labor or unpleasant sensations. It is during an extended pause the breathing muscles are relaxed; the shooter thus avoids strain upon the diaphragm; and his concentration is not broken by thinking of the need to breathe.

When a beginning shooter is told that

holding his breath will assist in steadying the rifle, he may instinctively relate this action to holding his breath in the manner that he would prior to submerging in water. Inhaling deeply and holding the air in the lungs is NOT a correct procedure in marksmanship.

A shooter should assume his position and breathe naturally until his hold begins to settle. He then takes a slightly deeper breath; exhales and pauses, expecting to fire the shot during the pause. If the hold does not settle sufficiently to allow the shots to be fired, the shooter resumes normal breathing and repeats the process.

The respiratory pause should never feel unnatural. If the pause is extended for too long a period, the body suffers from oxygen deficiency and sends out signals to resume breathing. These signals produce slight involuntary movements in the diaphragm and interfere with the shooter's ability to concentrate. Generally speaking, 6-8 seconds is the maximum safe period for the respiratory pause to fire a shot.

*PROPER USE OF THE EYES*

The coach must emphasize that the shooter need not concern himself with a scientific knowledge of the eye. He should be concerned only that his eyes are healthy, that he can see clearly, and that he uses his eyes properly while shooting. The coach must point out the two cardinal principles on the proper use of eyes:

1. Look as straight forward as possible. If the head position causes the shooter to look across the bridge of his nose or out from under his eyebrow, the eye muscle will be strained. This strain will produce involuntary eye movements which reduce the reliability of vision. This will not only affect performance, but the inability to see well will also have a damaging psychological effect upon the shooter. The eyes will function best in their natural, forward-looking position.

2. Do not fix vision on the sight picture for more than several seconds. When the eyes are focused on a single image for a time, the image is "burned" into the area of perception. This can be illustrated by staring at a black spot on a piece of paper for 20-30 seconds and then shifting the eyes to a white wall or ceiling. A ghost image of the black spot will appear, with a corresponding loss of visual acuity in the area of the image. This effect upon the shooter's eyes is quite important. A burned in sight picture will dull visual acuity in the critical area of perception; and this image may possibly be mistaken for a true sight picture. Either effect will seriously damage performance.

Normally the best use of the eyes is derived when the shooter keeps both eyes open while firing. It is natural for the eyes to work as a refined team. If one eye is squinted or closed the other eye will have a tendency to want to do the same. With both eyes open the shooter finds it easier to check the wind flags on the range while the rifle is in the aiming position.

On occasion there will be a shooter whose aiming eye is not his dominant eye. In this case it might prove helpful to use a blinder. The best blinder is one that is attached to the rifle in the vicinity of the rear sight. In this manner, the left eye will remain open but the blinder will block out the view down range. Completely blacking out all light from the left eye with an eye patch is not recommended. There is a sympathetic enlargement of the pupil opening of the shooting eye in concert with the wide opening of the pupil of the blacked out or closed eye.

*USE OF A COACH'S PLOTTING SHEET*

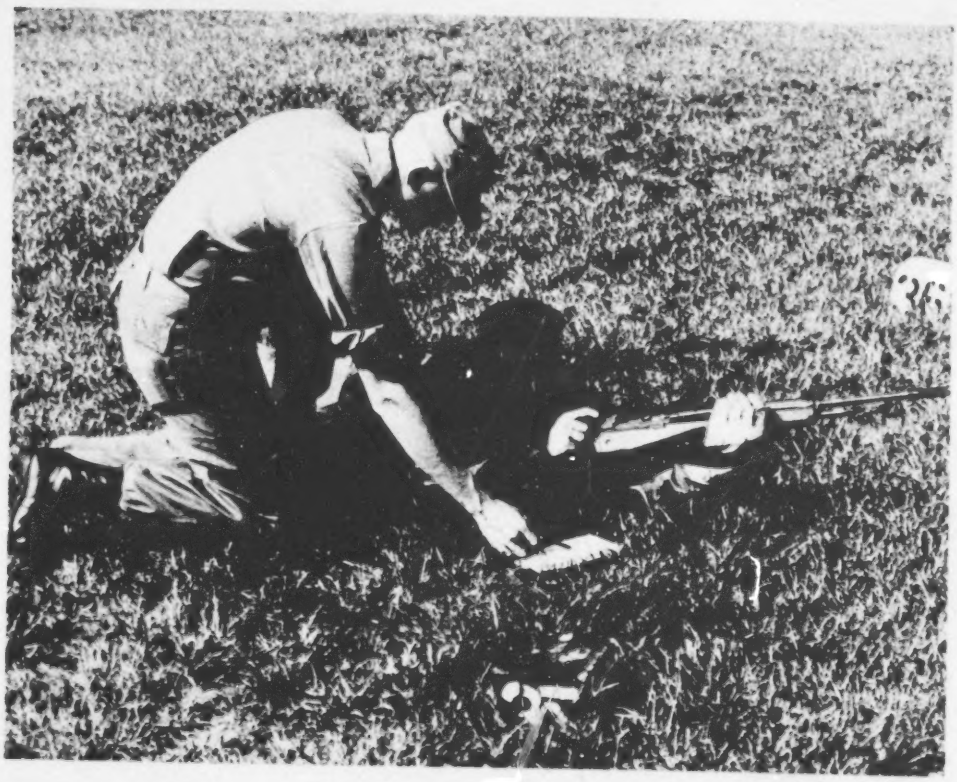
The plotting sheet is to the coach what the scorebook is to the shooter. In this respect it is a record of the shooter's performance, the coach's performance, the rifle, ammunition, weather, etc. Because of its importance, the coach maintains a plotting sheet for each firer, for each match or course of fire, and uses it as a guide in critiquing the shooter in his performance. Through remarks, plotting of hits and calls, and recording sight changes and favors, the coach can analyze his coaching ability. His ability to dope the wind and read the mirage will be evident when reviewing the horizontal spread of a group at any yardage. The placement of the groups during rapid fire will clearly indicate, in relation to the calls and favors given, whether the coach gave the proper and necessary favors. The importance of recording the conditions that affect the shooter from day to day will be evident if properly evaluated. The plotting sheet may be modified by the coach to meet individual requirements, however, the following is its generally accepted usage.

Standard locations are adopted for recording weather conditions and other general information. In each instance, the information should be recorded in a concise and complete manner with the use of descriptive words or phrases. The recording of the light and wind direction is with the use of arrows. In using arrows, we indicate the direction from which the wind is blowing or from which direction the light is coming. For example; utilizing the clock, with the shooter at the center, and 12 o'clock being the target, a 9 o'clock wind, or a wind blowing from the left, would be recorded with the arrow passing through 9 o'clock pointing to the opposite side of the clock. The same is true for light. For each stage of firing, a zero or sight change block is provided. This is used to record the shooter's rifle zero, the elevation and windage used for a shot or string, and the correct zero. For the slow fire stages, additional blocks are used to record subsequent changes due to wind changes. A block is provided in each stage to record the shooter's aiming technique. A plotting or hit target is suitable for each stage of firing with an additional call target for the slow fire stages. The target number is also included. The recording of the time is important, as light conditions vary depending on the time of day.

A coach should have the shooter call each shot. When a shot is called, the coach indicates its location on the call target. When the target is marked, the exact location of the hit is plotted. To record these hits and calls, the numbers 1 through 10 or 20 are used. The numbers should be small so as not to clutter the target. In this manner the hits and calls can quickly be analyzed to determine if the shooter is calling properly, if he has his proper zero, or if the coach has properly compensated for weather conditions.

Every effort should be made to record all sight changes and windage corrections given to the shooters. There should be sufficient blocks provided to record the elevation and windage for each shot fired. It is not necessary to repeat elevation or windage entries; a recording is made only upon change. The shooter's initial zero is placed in the block provided. If the coach has the shooter compensate for the wind, the actual number of clicks is placed in the wind column. For example; a three o'clock wind may be worth six clicks right; this is recorded as R6. The shooter's windage zero is not recorded except as mentioned

above. In this manner, any subsequent changes or corrections right or left are merely added or subtracted to the initial windage adjustment. Using this system, the coach will at a glance know the correct windage the rifle is using at all times. Elevation changes are recorded from the shooter's zero. Since elevation is a shooter's responsibility, he should be instructed to relay any changes made. At the completion of the string, the shooter, prior to leaving the firing line, is checked for his specific elevation and windage to verify the rifle's zero and also the windage value at the completion of the string.



*This coach is showing his shooter how to make a sight adjustment, utilizing information from the plotting sheet.*

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